# CONTRIBUTION OF YĀMUNĀCĀRYA

TO VIŚIṢṬĀDVAITA

by
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Contribution of Śri Yāmunācarya to Viśiṣṭādvaita by

by Dr. M. Narasimhachary, M.A. Ph.D.

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#### **FOREWORD**

I have great pleasure in writing a Foreword to this study of 'Yāmuna's Contribution to the Viśistādvaita' by my former student Dr. M. Narasimhachary. The Preface sets forth the background of the author and his work. Dr. Narasimhachary attended my M.A. classes in the Sanskrit Department of the University of Madras and passed in the First Class in 1961. From 1961 to 1963 he worked under me as a University Research Scholar and from 1963 to 1965, as a Junior Fellow of the U.G.C., when he prepared the present Thesis on which he took his Doctorate Degree in 1967.

During his student days, Dr. Narasimhachary impressed me with his grounding in Sanskrit and later when he did his research work, with his enthusiasm and ability in the pursuit of the subject of his specialisation. In giving him first the Agamaprāmānya of Yāmuna, I had set him on a field of study on which I had made some preliminary investigations. The study of the evolution of the ideas of the Śarīra-śarīri-bhāva, Śesaśesi-bhāva, Prapatti and the role of Śrī as a Mediator—which became the sheet-anchor of the school of Visistādvaita—, had interested me and as there had been on this, comparatively, a meagre amount of work and even what was published has been mostly inaccessible, e.g., the English translation of part of the Siddhitraya by Prof. Ramanujachariar and K. Srinivasachariar, I thought the gap could be filled by undertaking a detailed study and exposition of Yāmuna's Gītārthasangraha and Siddhitraya in addition to the Agamaprā mānya and the Stotras. As in the fields of other subjects, here also, the rise to fame and popularity of the later masters had resulted in the desuetude of the contributions of the earlier formative periods, the texts of these periods having become either lost or only partially preserved. It may be hoped that the growth of interest in the study of the earlier phases will lead to the discovery of the manuscripts of these treatises and that, along with the author of the present work who is continuing his studies in this field, others interested in and devoted to this school of thought would exert themselves in the task of discovering the more ancient texts and reconstructing the early history of the school more fully. The author's new critical edition of the Agamapramanya for the

Gaekwad Oriental Series and the present exhaustive exposition of Yāmunāchārya will, I am sure, contribute to this reconstruction. Comparative and critical study of a branch of Sanskrit literature comprehends an adequate study of the concerned branch in its sampradāya; effort in this direction by the author was rendered fruitful by the kind cooperation of one of our distinguished Pandits and traditional exponents of Viśis tādvaita, Sri Uttamur Viraraghavachariar, at whose feet the author was able to sit for some time.

The appearance of this work in the series of publications brought out by the Prof. M. Rangacharya Memorial Trust associated with one of our respected Sanskrit Professors and pioneers in *Visis tādvaita* studies, is a happy augury for the further fruitful endeavours in the scholarly field of the young author.

10-4-1971 Madras.

V. RAGHAVAN

### **PREFACE**

In the following pages, an attempt is made, for the first time, at presenting a detailed account of the pre-Rāmānuja phase of the school of philosophy which came to be known as Visiṣṭādvaita, as far as it can be known from the available works of Yāmunācārya, the most important of all the Śrīvaiṣṇava teachers that preceded Rāmānuja.

Yāmunācārya, known in Tamil as Āļavandār (meaning, one who came to rule, protect or save), is believed to be Rāmānuja's grand-teacher (paramācārya). Although Yāmuna's predecessor and grandfather, Nāthamuni, also wrote in Sanskrit works like the Yogarahasya and the Nyāyatattva, we do not have any of them. It is therefore with Yāmuna that our knowledge of this school of thought in Sanskrit should commence. Yāmuna wrote the Catuśślokī (Śrīstuti), the Stotraratna, the Gītārthasangraha, the Āgamaprāmānya, the Siddhitraya, the Puruṣanirṇaya and the Kāśmīrāgamaprāmānya, of which the last two are not available. It may be true that Yāmuna himself derived the chief tenets of his philosophy from the works of Nāthamuni, but we cannot say more on this, unless we have at least one work of Nāthamuni.

The great position that Rāmānuja attained as the Bhās vakāra of this school led to the comparative neglect of the contributions of this founder of the school, Yamuna. Even in modern works on Indian philosophy, e.g., The History of Indian Philosophy (Vol. III) by Dr. S.N. Dasgupta, or even The Philosophy of Visistādvaita by Prof. P.N. Srinivasachari, no special efforts have been made to present the important philosophical tenets of this great Pre-Rāmānuja writer. It must be mentioned in this context that an English translation of and notes on the Atma and Iśvarasiddhis of Yāmuna's Siddhitraya had been published by Prof. R. Ramanujachariar and K. Srinivasachariar in the Journal of the Annamalai University. A similar but more detailed study of Yāmuna's Gītārthasangraha had been published by Panditarāja D.T. Tatachariar in the Journal of Sri Venkateswara Oriental Institute. But the gap in the field for a specialised study of Yāmuna had still been there. It may also be noted that Dr. S.N. Dasgupta criticises Yāmuna

for not having put forward what he calls "new ideas" of philosophy (HIP, Vol. III, p. 155). He further states that Yāmuna had not said anything regarding the means of release, the state of release, etc. But the fact is that Yāmuna's śāstraic work, the Siddhitraya, is incomplete in all the three parts, and as such we are not in a position to say that Yāmuna had not dealt with the topics in question. It is for this reason that my Professor, Dr. V. Raghavan, proposed that I should take up a detailed study of Yāmuna's works for my Doctoral work.

The scope and nature of the work is to study in detail each extant work of Yamuna. We have thus studied not only the texts and presented the discussions in them, but have also brought together the views of Yāmuna and the main tenets of his school as they got crystallised in later terminology. When Yamuna wrote, the doctrines of Buddhism, Nyāya-Vaisesika, Mīmāmsā and Advaita were holding the field, and the credit goes to Yāmuna for having tackled those schools and established his own school of theistic Vedantic thought. Yamuna had the task of presenting a codified system of a philosophy and religion which had one foot in the Upanisads and another in the Agama. The Sidditraya, as already mentioned, has not been preserved intact and portions of all the three parts have been lost. Although we are thereby handicapped in our attempts at presenting a complete account of Yāmuna's discussions and contributions, we have, by correlating all the extant material, tried to fulfil our objectives in this Thesis. For the missing portions of the Siddhitraya, we have used citations and allusions to these in the works of Sudarsanasūri and Vedānta Deśika. With the help of references made by Vedānta Desika in some of his works, we have tried to outline the nature and scope of the Puruṣanirṇaya of Yāmuna, which is no longer available. The English translations of the Sidhhitraya and the Gitarthasangraha referred to already, as also the two Sanskrit commentaries on the Siddhitraya by Panditaratna Uttamur T. Viraraghavacharyasvamin (1942)and P.B. Annangaracharyasvamin of Vadtal (1954), have been quite helpful to me in understanding many a knotty and crucial passage in Yāmuna's work.

In the section devoted to a study of the  $Catu\acute{s\acute{s}lok\~{i}}$  of our author, we have traced the concept of  $\acute{S}akti$  from its earliest

beginnings in literature, to its final form in the later Vaisnava literature, especially the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tr\bar{a}gamas$ . What we now find missing in Yāmuna's works, can be assessed and understood from Rāmānuja's works like the  $Sr\bar{i}bh\bar{a}sya$  and the  $Ved\bar{a}rthasangraha$ , because Rāmānuja often bases his own arguments and ideas on those of Yāmuna. In the earlier part of this Thesis, we have tried to present a historical account of the predecessors of Yāmuna, and of Yāmuna and his works.

It is a great pleasure and privilege to record my sense of deep gratitude to my Professor, Dr. V. Raghavan, for his setting me on this important work — The Contribution of Yāmuna to the Visistādvaita — which is an untrodden field, and also for his kind supervision, guidance and help at every step in my humble work. I deem it a rare fortune to have worked under him. He not only furnished me with the plan of the work and guided me, but discussed all the important points and read the whole Thesis. But for his kind help, this Thesis of mine could never have assumed this shape. It was again through him that I came into touch with the Prof. M. Rangacharya Memorial Trust, under whose auspices I had the good fortune of delivering three lectures on Yamuna and his Philosophy, in 1969. Consequent on this, the scholarly son of the late Prof. Rangacharya, Prof. M.R. Sampathkumaran, evinced great interest in my work and at the suggestion of my Professor, kindly took up my Thesis for publication under the aegies of the above Trust. Thus I own it to my Professor that the work I did under him received the attention of scholars and the general public, particularly in this part of the country, interested in this branch of philosophy. Also it is through him that I came into touch with co-workers in this and allied fields working in foreign countries, especially the United States. My close association, especially with Dr. H. Daniel Smith of the Syracuse University, has been of particular help to me as I had the opportunity of going through a number of Pañcarātrāgama texts-which happened to be his own chosen filed-, which enabled me to understand and appreciate the case for the agama presented by Yāmuna in his Āgamaprāmānya. For all these and for his continued interest in me and my work, and also for the valuable Foreword which he has kindly given to this publication, I am profoundly indebted to my Guru.

I will be failing in my duty if I do not record my deep sense of gratitude to Panditaratna Tarkārnava Uttamur T. Viraraghavacharyasvamin, Madras, who was kind enough to allow me to read with him the texts of the \$\bar{A}gamapramanya\$ and the \$Siddhitraya\$. Yāmuna, it must be pointed out, is by no means an easy writer. The above two works of his are full of \$\sigma sastraic\$ discussions and are at times, turgid. But for the lucid interpretations offered by Sri Viraraghavacharyasvamin, I could not have studied Yāmuna and accomplished my objective. It may be mentioned that the \$Siddhitraya\$ is not part of the traditional series of texts which the \$Visistādvaita\$ pandits read or teach; and as such I am all the more sensible of the kindness of Pandit Viraraghavachariar.

I feel it a great pleasure to express my sincere thanks to Prof. M.R. Sampathkumaran who offered a number of suggestions regarding this work of mine and its publication and also enlightened me on certain topics and points of traditional significance. In a work of this nature, in a field in which there has not been much work done by earlier scholars, errors are bound to exist. I shall be glad to receive suggestions from all quarters which will help me to improve my presentation in the next edition of this work or in my further studies in this field.

I am thankful to the authorities of the University of Madras, for offering me a studentship for two years and also the necessary facilities to carry on my research work in the Sanskrit Department of the University and for the permission that they gave for the publication of this Thesis. I am also thankful to the University Grants Commission, New Delhi, for having offered me a Junior Fellowship for a period of two years. My thanks are also due to the Curators of the Government Oriental Manuscripts Library, Madras, and the Adyar Library and Research Centre, Madras, for having permitted me to consult some rare and unpublished manuscripts.

Madras, April, 1971.

M. NARASIMHACHARY

#### PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

Subsequent to the publication of the First Edition, a lot of work has been done on Yāmuna by scholars of the East and West. Prof. J.A.B. Van Buitenin's English Translation of the Āgamaprāmānya (Madras, 1971), the present writer's Critical Edition and Study of the same text (Baroda, 1976), and Yāmuna's Vedānta and Pāncarātra: Integrating the Classical and the Popular by Walter G. Neevel, Jr. (Harward, 1977) are some of the noteworthy publications in this area.

All the copies of the First Edition of this work having been exhausted in a short span of time, there has been a growing demand for it from scholars all over the world. Unable to bring out another Edition, the authorities of the Prof. M. Rangacharya Memorial Trust, Madras, gave me the clearance to have it published on my own. This was sometime around 1980. I have been, all along, studying and teaching Yāmuna. Many scholars of the West used to come to me to read Yāmuna in original. The need for a Second Edition was more acutely felt. I tried to publish it but my efforts did not take any shape partly due to the financial constraints, and partly due to my foreign assignment in Malaysia during the years 1982-84.

It is heartening to place on record, in this connection, my sincere love and grateful thanks to my valued friend, Prof. C.V. Seshacharyulu of Hyderabad who has been watching me and my work since the past three decades. He has very kindly offered to bring out the Second Edition under the illustrious banner of his prestigeous SRI JAYALAKSHMI PUBLICATIONS. I have no words to express my sincere and heartfelt thanks to him for this noble gesture.

Since the present work happens to be the Doctoral Thesis I submitted to the University of Madras, I have not made any drastic changes in the text. The last chapter, however is an exception. In this, I developed the concept of Yāmuna's pioneering

work, and also tried to present another dimension of his work from the viewpoint of his masterful "nirvāhas" for some important stanzas of the *Divya Prabandha*. Although Yāmuna did not leave any work in Tamil to the posterity, his ingenious interpretations of some of the Pāśurams bring in immense joy to the religious-minded Śrīvaiṣnava scholars.

I now feel it my duty to answer the criticism levelled against my assessment of Yāmuna's work, by Eric J. Lott in his masterly treatise, God and the Universe in the Vedantic Theology of Rāmānuja (pp. 33-34). Regarding the delineation of the śarīraśārīri-bhāva, according to the critic, I have "over-stated my case" in favour of Yāmuna. Well, each scholar has his own way of understanding a concept, and Eric J. Lott is right in his own way of understanding and assessing a given situation. Yāmuna uses the Brhadāranyaka passages (V.7) "yasya prthivi śāriram, vasya āpah śarīram.." etc. where the Lord is described as the ātman in relation to everything in the universe, which becomes his body (śarīra). Of special significance is the text "Ya ātmani tişthan", "Yasya ātmā śariram" etc. which Rāmānuja explains (Śrībhāṣya I.2.19) as the Mādhyandina reading, while Kānva text has "yo vijñāne tisthan, yasya vijñānam śārīram" etc. Although the word "vijñānam" here means the "ātman" (the jīva), Rāmānuja has throughout chosen the Mādhyandina reading, following Yāmuna. This, according to me, is quite significant. Moreover, in the concerned chapter (VII) I stated that the "śārīra-śarīri" concept has been "traced out" by me from the works of Yāmuna. "Tracing out" means "trying to find the beginnings," or "to identify" in a sketchy fashion. It does not, by any stretch of imagination, mean "presentation in a fully developed form". My next sentence clearly reads: "This concept finds fuller expression and consummation in Rāmānuja's Philosophy". Thus, I see there is no substance in Eric. J. Lot's comment, that I have made taller claim for Yamuna's originality than what was really due to him. Nobody can underestimate Rāmānuja's position as the great master-builder and the chief architect of the Visiṣṭādvaita, and particularly his *development* of the *sarīra-sarīri-bhāva*. At the same time, ignoring what Yāmuna has stated in his works, to the extent they are available, is unwarranted and unjustified.

In fine, I would like to thank my genuine well-wisher and nirhetuka suhrt Dr. S.B. Raghunathacharya, Vice-Chancellor, Rashtriya Sanskrit Vidyapeetha (Deemed University), Tirupathi, who has always been enthusing and encouraging me to bring out the second Edition of this work. He along with Prof. C.V. Seshacharyulu has been a constant and unfailing source of great inspiration and guidance to me in my academic activities.

Finally, I would like to thank once again Prof. C.V. Seshacharyulu for all that he has done to bring out this second Edition in a very short span of time. I also wish to convey my thanks to M/s. Sri Kalanjali Graphics, Hyderabad, for their neat and prompt printing.

M. NARASIMHACHARY

Madras, February, 1998

#### XIV

#### PUBLISHER'S NOTE

It is a matter of immense pleasure for us that we are now able to bring out "The Contribution of Śrī Yāmunācārya to Viśiṣṭādyaita" which was the Doctoral Thesis of our good friend, Dr. M. Narasimhachary. Although this happens to be the Second Edition, we are sure that on all counts, it is second to none. We do hope that this publication fulfils a long felt desideratum by scholars of the East and West, who, for the past three decades have been eagerly awaiting its emergence. Needless to say, this work for the first time, embodies an authoritative and comprehensive assessment of all the available works of Śrī Yāmunācārya, the grand-teacher and path-finder of the great Rāmānuja. We are particularly pleased that by the Grace of God, our desire to bring out this Book in a way that it satisfies both the eye and the mind of the discerning readers, is more than realised through this Publication.

Dr. Narasimhachary is a multi-faceted scholar with an admirable mastery not only in Telugu and Sanskrit, but also in Tamil. Prof. V.S. Venkataraghavacharya and Dr. V. Raghavan were his Gurus in so far as his Sanskrit studies are concerned at the Post-graduate and Doctoral levels. He had the good fortune of studying the works of Yamuna in the traditional method at the feet of "Abhinavadesika", "Tarkārņava", "Paņditaratna", Sri U.Ve. Uttamur Viraraghavacharya Swamin. Quite early in his life, he had the necessary inspiration and training in composing verses in Telugu and Sanskrit, from stalwarts like Prof. Iyunni Manapraggada Seshasavi Prof. Viraraghavacharya, and "Kaviratna", "Hayagrivopāsaka", Sri Gudimella Ramanujacharya Swamin. Dr. Narasimhachary has also been assisting many Western scholars in their Indological Studies for quite a long time. Of special mention is the help he rendered to Prof. H. Daniel Smith of the Syracuse University, New York, U.S.A., in his researches in the field of Pancaratra Agamas.

We consider it a matter of great fortune that we are now able to place this prestigeous and pioneering book in the hands of scholars.

We are thankful to Dr. Narasimhachary for the readiness with which he has consented to our bringing out this Edition.

We are also thankful to M/s. Odin Press and M/s Kalanjali Graphics, Hyderabad, for the neatness and promptness with which they have printed this book.

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## CHAPTER I

# THE PRE-RĀMĀNUJA AGE

The philosophy of Visistādvaita before Śrī Rāmānujācārya bears the indelible impression of the great saints and scholars who, from time to time, inspired people by their teachings and writings. The Visistādvaita school has three important phases: the śāstraic texts in Sanskrit which owe their authority to the Vedas, the Āgamas in Sanskrit (which again are two-fold—the Vaikhānasa and the Pañcarātra) and the Psalms of the Āzhvārs, forming a large literature by itself, reflecting a high state of devotion of the saints that sang them to the Lord as Nārāyaṇa. The Āzhvārs drank deep of the love of God and burst into rapturous utterances which assumed the beautiful form of songs. These songs go by the name of Nālāyira Divya Prabandha, meaning the "Four thousand Verses of Divine Composition". The Āzhvārs did not engage themselves in scholarly polemic in favour of their own line of thought.

The age of the  $\bar{A}zhv\bar{a}rs$  is the same as that of other sages and scholars who contributed by their own line of approach to the general spiritual renaissance of the country, as for example, Śri Śańkāracārya with his monistic philosophy (Advaita). This situation demanded a scholastic approach also, as different

schools were contending with one another at that time. The devotional outpourings in the local languages had to be provided now with a solid scholastic basis. This gave rise to the line of *Ācāryas* who wrote a series of expositions in Sanskrit in support of their school. Śrī Nāthamuni appeared as the pioneer who wrote Sanskrit works systematizing the Śrīvaisnava philosophy in the South: the *Yogarahasya* and the *Nyāyatattva*, neither of which is unfortunately available now.

Of all the teachers who preceded Rāmānuja, Śrī Yāmunācārva is the most important. The task of supporting the Viśistādvaita from the scholarly aspect, which was first undertaken by Nāthamuni, now acquired new impetus at the hands of Yāmuna, who wrote seven works in Sanskrit covering the religious as well as the philosophic aspects 1: the Śrīstuti or the Catuśś loki, the Stotraratna, the Gitarthasangraha, the Āgamaprāmānya, the Siddhitraya, the Kāśmīrāgamaprāmānya and the Purusanirnaya, also known as the Mahāpurusanirnaya.2 Of these, the last two are mere names to us. Mention should be made here of the fact that the authorship of the work Kāśmirāgamaprāmānya is open to doubt. There is no reference to this work as that of Yāmuna either in the Rahasyatrayasāra of Venkatanātha (popularly known as Vedānta Desika) or in works like the Prapannāmrta. The Rahasyatrayasāra enumerates the works of Yāmuna as eight in number (p.41:āha ettu), without referring to the Kāś mīrāgamaprāmānya which indeed may form a strong proof against Yāmuna's authorship of the work (Desika

counts the three Siddhis of the Siddhitraya separately and hence the number eight). But inasmuch as Yāmuna himself refers to this work in his Agamaprāmānya³ in a way that is suggestive of its being his own composition, and since there is no proof to the contrary, we may take it for granted that its author is Yāmuna himself, until it is proved otherwise.

The  $Ac\bar{a}ryas$  had to clear their path of the rival schools of thought, both Vedic and non-Vedic. Among the Vedic schools, the Advaita and the  $M\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}m\bar{s}\bar{a}$ , and among the non-Vedic, Buddhism and Materialism offered them the toughest fight.

Thus, the period prior to Rāmānuja was a testing one so far as the *Visistādvaita* is concerned. However, the task of Rāmānuja was rendered easy by his predecessor Yāmunācārya, who had already tackled the tenets of rival schools, especially the monistic, which was looming large at that time. The completion and promotion of the cause of the *Visistādvaita* as a regular system of philosophy was left in the hands of Rāmānuja,<sup>4</sup> who succeeded in his mission creditably well, as is borne out by his *opus magnum*, the *Śrībhāsya* (commentary on the *Brahmasūtra* of Bādarāyana) and its allied literature. The extent of Yāmuna's influence on Rāmānuja will be dealt with in a separate chapter of the present work.

<sup>1.</sup> Cf. TMK. V. 136: "nāthopajňam pravṛttam bahubhirupacitam yāmuneyaprabandhaiḥ trātam saṃyag yatindrairidamakhilatamahkarsanam darsanam naḥ"

<sup>2.</sup> Cf. the following opening verse of Venkaṭanātha's  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}rtha$ saṅgraharakṣā, which is a commentary on Yāmuna's GS.:

<sup>&</sup>quot;mānatvam bhagavanmatasya mahatah pumsas tathā nirnayas tisrassiddhaya ātma-samvidakhilādhi sāna-tattvā srayāh gītārthasya ca sangrahasstutiyugam srī srī sayorityamun yadgranthān anusandadhe yatipatis tam yāmuneyam numah."

Venkatanātha refers to Yāmuna's Purusanirnaya in his NS. ch. III, p. 225; Saccaritrarakṣā, p. 46; N.P. p. 148; Stotraratnabhāṣya, p. 49; and the Gītārthasangraharakṣā, p. 3. See below for the two lost works of Yāmuna.

<sup>3.</sup> See Dr. Raghavan's Presidential Address, p. 2: "Proceedings and Transactions of the All India Oriental Conference", Twentyfirst Session, Srinagar (1964).

Cf. the following from the  $\tilde{A}P$ .:

<sup>&</sup>quot;sarvam caitat puruşanirnaye nipunataramupapāditamiti neha prastūyate" (p. 45).

<sup>&</sup>quot;yathā caikāyanas ākhāyā apauruseyatvam tathā kāsmīragamaprāmānya eva prapancitamiti neha prastūyate" (p. 85).

Here, the way in which Yāmuna refers to the Kāśmīragama-prāmānya is similar to his reference to the *Purusanirnaya*, which is decidedly his own composition.

<sup>4.</sup> Cf. foot-note 1 above

Also vide PA. ch. 116, p. 454, verses 52-55, where Rāmānuja is said to have undertaken the task of promoting the Visisṭādvaita religion and philosophy, in accordance with the intentions of Yāmunācārya.

## TEACHERS THAT PRECEDED YĀMUNĀCĀRYA

The exact state of the *Visistādvaita* philosophy before Yāmuna is not known to us because of the fact that although there were some works by his time, they have not come to light.

In the list of teachers traditionally recited by the Śrīvaisnavas, barring the divine teachers, we have the following mentioned in the pre-Yāmuna age: Śathakopa (known in Tamil as Nammāzhvār), Nāthamuni, Pundarīkākṣa (Uyyakkondār) and Śrīrāmamiṣra (Maṇakkālnambi). Of these, Nammāzhvār is the celebrated Tamil saint and hence it is Nāthamuni who forms the first Śrīvaiṣṇava teacher (ācārya) of the South, who wrote works in Sanskrit.

Śrīranganāthamuni, popularly known as Nāthamuni, and perhaps otherwise called Śrīnātha, was a native of Viranārāyanapura, a village in the South Arcot District, located near Chidambaram. This village is now known as Kāttumannārgudi. He lived in the last quarter of the ninth and the major part of the tenth century A.D. He had a son named Īśvara and a daughter too.

He was a great scholar, philosopher, musician<sup>8</sup> and yogin, <sup>9</sup> all in one. <sup>10</sup>

We have recently noticed a work entitled  $N\ddot{a}thamuniprapannatvasamarthana^{11}$ also called Nāthamunivijaya. 12 The author, Desikasudhi, tries in this work to prove that Nathamuni, in spite of his great yogic powers and full-fledged devotion to the Lord, considered and practised independent prapatti or Surrender as the only means of attaining salvation. 13 rather than bhakti or devotion, which he viewed as an end in itself, but not as a means. 14 The author of this work bases his arguments mainly on the statements made by Venkatanātha in some of his works like the Stotraratnabhāsva. the Gītārthasangraharaksā, the Nikseparaksā, the Gadyabhāsya and the Tātparyacandrikā. No reference to, or quotation from any of Nāthamuni's own compositions is found in this work.

One hagiological work states the Näthamuni was a contemporary of Nammāzhvār, the famous Tamil saint, or of his disciple Madhurakavi Āzhvār, 15 and that he had a direct vision of the Three Realities (the "tattvatraya", viz., Cit, Acit and Īsvara) by means of his yogic powers. 16 Alternatively, it is stated

<sup>5.</sup> Cf. Venkaţanātha's commentary on the SR. of Yāmuna: "Śrīraṅganātha iti nāmadheyam" (p. 27) and "Śrīraṅganātha iti tvannāmadhārinam" (p. 94).

<sup>6.</sup> T.A. Gopinātha Rau, in his "Sir Subrahmanya Aiyar Lectures on the History of Śrīvaiṣṇavas", (p. 30), says that Nāthamuni was also called Śrīnātha, on the evidence of some inscriptional data, which, however, he does not furnish.

<sup>7.</sup> Vide PA. ch. 108, p. 417, śl. 71.

<sup>8.</sup> Ibid. p. 413, ff.

<sup>9.</sup> Ibid. p. 416, śls 56-57. It is said that Nāthamuni was practising the yoga consisting of eight accessories (aṣṭānga), which it is said, procured mokṣa easily. This chapter (108) describes the transmission of this yoga from Nāthamuni to his disciple, Kurukānātha. Cf. also ch. 110, śl. 15, in this connection. It is further recorded (ch. 114, śl. 50 ff.) that Yāmuna could not meet Kurukānātha at an appointed hour to receive this efficacious yoga from him and that it thus became extinct.

<sup>10.</sup> Yāmuna in his SR. (śls. 1, 2 and 3) and the  $\bar{A}gamapramanya$  (the concluding verses) glorifies Nāthamuni as a great devotee of the Lord. Also see Venkatanātha's commentary on śl. 2 of the SR. p. 28.

<sup>11.</sup> This is a paper manuscript deposited in the Government Oriental Manuscripts Library, Madras, under R. No. 1362. This is in *Grantha* characters and consists of 14 folios (27 pages).

<sup>12.</sup> Cf. the concluding stanza of the above work, p. 27:

<sup>&</sup>quot;deśikadāsenāsau śiṣyeṇa śrī madaṇṇayāryāṇām nāthamunivijayanāmā kṛtirabhirāmā kṛtā satām prītyai."

<sup>13.</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 1:

<sup>&</sup>quot;satyām samagrabhaktau samadhikasaktau salālaso muktau prāyunkta yah prapattim vipratipattim vihantvasau nāthah."

<sup>&</sup>quot;iha khalu nikhilamunivara(ni)karasamadhikaniravadhikaparikarasamagrabhaktiko 'pi bhagvān nāthamunirapi sodhakālavilambaḥ svatantraprapattimavalalamba iti samīcīnasampradāyasaranisanginaḥ sangirante".

<sup>14.</sup> Ibid., p. 27.

<sup>&</sup>quot;tadevam nāthamuneḥ sādhanabhaktiniṣṭhatve 'nanyasiddhasādhaka-leśābhāvāt, prabalavipulabādhasattvācca, nāthamuniḥ svatantraprapatti-niṣṭhaḥ, phalabhaktiniṣṭhaśca; na sādhanabhaktiniṣṭha iti niṣkaṇṭako ghaṇṭāpathaḥ".

<sup>15.</sup> Cf. PA. ch. 107, p. 408, ff.

<sup>16.</sup> *Ibid.*  $\pm$ 1. 50. This fact is corroborated by Yāmuna in his  $\bar{A}P$ . (p. 87) by the phrase - "svayogamahimapratyakṣatattvatrayaḥ".

that he meditated on the composition of Madhurakavi on Nammāzhvār and that this led to a vision of the Āzhvār wherein he was taught the works of all the Āzhvārs. He was led to make a search for them on hearing a decad of the Tiruvāymozhi (V.5) wherein the Lord is addressed as Ārāvamudu or "Nectar that never satiates" and which refers to the thousand verses of which it forms a part.

Näthamuni is thus accredited with the honour of having collected nearly four thousand of the floating psalms of the  $Azhv\bar{a}rs$  and compiled them into their present form. To him also goes the credit of having, for the first time, set this Prabandha (the collection of the songs of the  $Azhv\bar{a}rs$ ) to music<sup>17</sup> and introduced its recitation as an integral part of the Śrīvaiṣṇava temple-worship in the South.<sup>18</sup>

The works of Näthamuni, as we have already noted, are the Yogarahasya—a treatise on yoga, and the Nyāyatattva—a treatise on the Nyāya system of thought. 19 None of these works is available now, though quotations from the second are made by Venkatanātha, the most brilliant luminary in the history of the post-Rāmānuja Śrīvaiṣnavism. However, Sri T.K.V. Desikachar claims that his father, Sri Krishnamacharya "received" the text of the Yogarahasya from Nāthamuni himself, which is published in the quarterly Darśanam (Vol. 1 no. 1, Feb. 1991 onwards) serially by the Krishnamacharya Yoga Mandiram, Madras. From

the references made to it, the Nyāyatattva appears to have been the first work in the field to interpret Nyāya according to the Śrīvaisnava line of thought. Venkatanātha states that the Nyāvatattva criticises and controverts the Nyāvasūtra of Gautama.20 He quotes metrical as well as prose passages from the Nyāyatattva nearly twently times in the Nyāyasiddhānjana21 and thrice in his Nyāyapariśuddhi.22 He refers by name to the pādas or sections of this text-prameya, pramātr, karana and iñāna, and also to several adhikaranas or sub-sections of each of these pādas. We can, by this, understand that the Nyāyatattva was a very large work in verse as well as prose, consisting of the four above-mentioned sections and several sub-sections. The Nyāyatattva is referred to as śāstra in the Siddhitraya.23 Sudarsanasūri, the commentator on Rāmānuja's Śribhāsya, attributes three ślokas that appear in the Śribhāsya to Nāthamuni.24 The verses quoted by Rāmānuja are:

"jñānarūpam param brahma tannivartyam mṛṣātmakam ajñānam cet tiraskuryāt kah prabhustannivartakah (ne)? jñānam brahmeti vijñānamasti cet syāt prameyatā brahmano 'nanubhūtitvam tvaduktyaiva prasajyate jñānam brahmeti cet jñānamajñānasya nivartakam brahmavat tatprakāśatvāt tadapi hyanivartakam "

Obviously, the ślokas quoted above must have formed part of the Nyāyatattva. Tradition reveals that the text of the Nyāyatattva opens with the following verse:

<sup>17.</sup> The *Guruparamparä* tradition, as well as the *RTS*. of Desika, support the view that Nāthamuni set the Tamil *prabandha* to music. See p. 65, the verse "kāļam valamburiyanna" etc. (Publication of the Rahasyatrayapracārasabhā, Madras).

<sup>18.</sup> Vide PA. ch. 107, p. 413.

<sup>19.</sup> PA. is the only work which records that Nāthamuni wrote the Puruşanirnaya. This is obviously an error. See. ch. 108, p. 416, śl. 44:

<sup>&</sup>quot;sāstram nyāyatattvākhyam tathā purusanirnayam/dhîmān yogarahasyam ca trīnyetānyakarottadā".

But the RTS. of Desika (p. 39) clearly states that the works of Nāthamuni are two in number: the Nyāyatattva and the Yogarahasya. The Purusanirnaya to which Desika very rarely refers, is that of Yāmuna. See f.n. 2, above.

<sup>20.</sup> Cf. NP. p. 87:

<sup>&</sup>quot;bhagavannāthamunibhir nyāyatattvasamāhvayā avadhīryākṣapādādīn nyabandhi nyāyapaddhatih"

<sup>21.</sup> See pp. 194-196, 199, 205, 237, 238, 241, 243-244, 256-258, 261-264.

<sup>22.</sup> See pp. 130, 132, 172.

<sup>23.</sup> Cf. AS. p. 65: "....yathārthakhyātisamarthanena ca śāstra iti na vyāvarnyate..." See also the verse, "yo vetti..." etc., quoted below where the term "śāstra" occurs.

Some of the sections (adhikaraṇas) of the Nyāyatattva are also referred to by Yāmuna in his ST: "sukhaduḥkhādhikaraṇa" (p. 145), "prathamādhikaraṇa" (pp. 151, 208), "bhrāntyadhikaraṇa" (p. 194), etc.

<sup>24.</sup> Sudarśanasūri introduces these verses with the remark: "atra nāthamunibhiruktān ślokānāha". Vide Śrībhāṣya with Sudarśana's commentary, Vol. I, Sampuṭa 2, p. 1.

"yo vetti yugapat sarvam pratyaksena sadā svatah tam pranamya harim ś*āstram nyāyatattavam* pracaksmahe"<sup>25</sup>

In the Nyāyasiddhānjana, it is further stated that the Ātmasiddhi (one of the three Siddhis comprising the Siddhitraya of Yāmuna) is itself a digest of the Nyāyatattva.<sup>26</sup>

In the light of this we understand that the  $Ny\bar{a}yatattva$  put forth a Vedāntic system of logic, refuting the classical  $Ny\bar{a}ya$  expounded by Gautama and others.<sup>27</sup> It is also clear from the three couplets quoted above that this work also refutes the Advaitic concepts of the Brahman,  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  and moksa.

Yāmuna makes several references to his grandfather<sup>28</sup> Nāthamuni and his distinguished disciples in his own works.<sup>29</sup>

Nāthamuni was followed by Pundarīkāksa and he, by Śrīrāmamiśra.<sup>30</sup> No works are attributed to these teachers. Venkaṭanātha, in his works like the *Nyāyasiddhānjana* and the *Nyāyapariśuddhi*, refers to *Sadarthasanksepa*<sup>31</sup> of one

Śrīrāmamiśra, but this author is not the same as Yāmuna's teacher, as he is also said to have commented upon the *Vedārthasangraha* of Rāmānuja,<sup>32</sup> which proves his later date.

Tradition bears evidence to the fact that it is Śrīrāmamiśra that was responsible for the final spiritual transformation of Yāmuna, who, it is said, was given to worldly pleasures brought by his administrative office, and that he also took Yāmuna to Śrīrangam for this purpose.<sup>33</sup>

<sup>25.</sup> Venkaṭanātha, the most informative of all the post-Rāmānuja writers of the Visiṣṭādvaita school, refers to the first line of this verse in his commentary on Rāmānuja's ŚG p-11.

<sup>26.</sup> Vide p. 243: "nyāyatattvaśāstraprakaraṇam hi ātmasiddhih".

<sup>27.</sup> Vide NP. p. 86:

<sup>&</sup>quot;yathāvasthitanyāyānugṛhītam vedam, vedānumatam ca nyāyamanusarāmaḥ, na punar nyāyamātram".

<sup>28.</sup> Vide SR. śl. 55b: "pitāmaham nāthamunim vilokya" etc.

<sup>29.</sup> Ibid. sls. 1, 2 and 3 and also the last two stanzas of the AP.

Prapannāmṛta mentions that Nāthamuni's disciples were eleven in number of whom five were most prominent: Padmākṣa, Kurukānātha, Melaiyagattāzhvār, Kīzhaiyagattāzhvār and Śrīkṛṣṇalakṣmīnātha. See ch. 109, p. 419.

Desika, in his RTS. (p. 41) says that Nāthamuni's disciples were eight in number.

<sup>30.</sup> See PA. ch. 110, p. 426 ff., for the life-accounts of these  $\bar{a}c\bar{a}ryas$ .

<sup>31.</sup> NS. pp. 210, 233, etc; NP. pp. 152, 153, etc.

<sup>32.</sup> NS. p. 261.

<sup>33.</sup> Vide PA. ch. 112, p. 438

## YĀMUNA AND HIS PREDECESSORS

Śrīrāmamiśra was followed by Yāmunācārya. Since the works of Nāthamuni, the first Śrīvaiṣṇava author in the South have not come down to us, Yāmuna may, for all practical purposes, be regarded as the earliest Śrīvaiṣṇava teacher with whom the study of later Vaiṣṇava theology should commence.

Yāmuna, called in Tamil "Āļavandār", occupies a unique place among the Śrīvaisnava teachers and accordingly, he, along with his grandfather Nāthamuni, had been accorded the central position in the galaxy of teachers. He was Rāmānuja's teacher's teacher (paramācārya) and all the compositions of Rāmānuja bear clear evidence of the great influence of Yāmuna's works. At a time when the Advaita philosophy was enjoing wide popularity and unquestioned authority and when the śāstraic teachings of Nāthamuni were just nascent, Yāmuna had to play a vital role in promoting the cause of the Śrīvaisnava religion and philosophy through scholarly expositions in Sanskrit. He achieved phenomenal success in this task. An exposition and assessment of Yāmuna's contribution of Visistādvaita forms the subject of our present effort.

Yāmuna, like his grandfather Nāthamuni, lived in Viranārāyaṇapura. Hagiological works like the *Divyasūricarita* and the *Prapannāmṛta*, with slight differences in detail, bear testimony to the prodigious scholarship of Yāmuna even as a young boy.<sup>36</sup> They also mention of his having come into contact with the

36. We refer our readers in this connection to hagiological works like the DSC. and the PA. for detailed accounts of Yamuna's life. There came into existence quite a large number of works on Yāmuna's life in Sanskrit as well as the local languages, especially regarding his early life. These accounts being too well-known, we do not undertake to reproduce them here. But the chief incidents of Yāmuna's life may briefly be stated as follows: Yāmuna was not born in the life-time of Nathamuni, his grandfather, or even in that of his disciple. Pundari kāksa, Yāmuna, even as a young body, defeated a renowned pandit by name Ākkiyāzhvān (Vidvajjanakolāhala) belonging to the court of the Chola King of his times. The Queen called Yamuna "Alayandar" (one that had come to protect, i.e., a saviour), on the same occasion. Yāmuna became a Chief and was deeply immersed in the pleasures that were consequent to a life of position and self. Śrīrāmamiśra. Nāthamuni's grand-disciple, who wanted to convert Yāmuna from this life to that of a samnyāsin to which he was destined, could, with great difficulty, gain Yamuna's audience. He told Yamuna that the predecessors of the latter had deposited patrimony with him, to be handed over to Yāmuna. He then taught him the Bhagavadgītā and could succeed in converting him slowly to the path of detachment and renunciation. The conversion became complete and full-fledged when Śrirāmamiśra took Yāmuna to Śrīrangam and showed him the lotus-feet of Ranganātha, exhorting him that those feet were verily the patrimony that the predecessors of Yāmuna had left with him. Compare in this connection \$1.6b of Yamuna's SR, which has a reference to this 'Kuladhanam':

"stosyāmi nah kuladhanam kuladaivatam tat pādāravindam aravinda - vilocanasya"

The following works may be consulted for detailed accounts of Yāmuna's life:

I. SANSKRIT

- 1. Divyasūricarita
- 2. Prapannāmrta
- 3. Yāmunācāryacaritra
- 4. Divyasumanoguņavaijayantī
- 5. Nāthamunivijayacampū
- II. TAMIL
- 1. Guruparamparāprabhāva (in MAŅIPRĀVAĻA)
- III. TELUGU
- 1. Ācāryasūktimuktāvali (ch. 4)
- 2. Āmuktamālyada (ch. 4)
- 3. Paramabhāgavatavilāsamu (ch. 1)
- 4. Paramayogivilāsāmu¹ (ch. 8)
- 5. Paramayogivilāsamu² (ch. 5)6. Yāmunavijayavilāsamu (5 chs.)
- 7. Yāmunācāryacaritramu (one ch.)

<sup>34.</sup> Vide : "lakṣmīnāthasamārambhām nāthyāmunamadhyamām asm sāryaparyantām vande guruparamparām"

This verse is a ributed to Kūreśa (Kūrattāzhvār), the foremost disciple of Rāmānu a. It is quoted in the PA. ch. 116, śl. 88.

<sup>35.</sup> Rāmānuja's teacher who studied under Yāmuna was Mahāpūrņa.

Chola King of his times. This Tamil name " $\bar{A}$  lavand $\bar{a}r$ " is said to refer to his having held some adminsitrative office. It is said that Śrīrāmamiśra was responsible for the final spiritual turn in Yāmuna's secular life, and taught him the  $Bhagavadgit\bar{a}^{39}$  before he took him to Śrīraṅgaṁ where Śrī Raṅganātha is the presiding Deity. No specific autobiographical or historical references could be gathered from Yāmuna's own works, excepting a few facts relating to his own ancestry. The said is said to reference the said of the sai

Traditional accounts also mention that Yāmuna hand two or four sons.  $^{41}$  They also say that he was born in 918 A.D. and breathed his last in 1038 A.D.  $^{42}$ 

37. Cf. in this connection the following statement of Yāmuna's SS. śl. 19b, p. 274: "yathā colanrpassamrād advitīyo 'dya bhūtale". The words in italies might be taken as supporting the above tradition.

38. PA. ch. 111. śl. 98 renders this term as "rakṣāgataguruḥ". Also cf. ibid. śl. 99 ff.

See Prof. R. Ramanujachari, Proceedings and Transactions of the AIOC., 1st Session, 1955, (p. 397): "To this day a locality in Gangaikondapuram goes by the name of Alavandarmedu".

39. This GS. of Yāmuna, which we are going to examine in a succeeding chapter, might be taken as incorporating the traditional interpretation of the Gītā, which Yāmuna received from Śrīrāmamiśra. Venkaṭanātha bears full evidence to the fact that Śrīrāmamiśra taught the Gītā to Yāmuna. See his commentary on the concluding stanza of GS. (p. 16): Śrīrāmamiśrasakāśāt bahuśāstravidbhir asmābhir bahuśaḥ śrutasya bhagavadgītārthaprapaficasya..." etc.

See PA Ch. 112, p. 437. for an account of Yāmuna's conversion to the holy order of ascetics. Cf. in addition, the following memorial stanza dedicated to Śrīrāmamiśra:

"ayatnato yamunamatmadasam alarkapatrarpananiskrayena yah kritavan asthitayauvarajyam namami tam ramamameyasattvam" 40. See SR. sls. 61 and 65, starting with "janitvaham vamse" and "akrtrimatvaccaranaravinda" respectively.

The disciples of Yāmuna, according to the RTS. (p. 42), were fifteen in number 41. Vide PA. ch. 111, sls. 109-110, were Yāmuna is said to have had only two sons. The "Local Records of Brown", Vol. 60, pp. 506-509, under Serial No. 150, furnishing the chronology of the Śrīvaiṣnava teachers, supports the view that Yāmuna had four sons. Their names are also given as Iśvarabhaṭṭa, Govindamuni, Nāthamuni and Rangarāja. Deśika in his RTS. (p. 41), says that Yāmuna had only one son.

42. T.A. Gopinātha Rau however, does not accept these dates. See his "Lectures on the History of Śrivaisnavas", etc., p. 31.

Yāmuna passed away in Śrīrangam. Rāmānuja was a younger contemporary of Yāmuna. But according to the traditional accounts, these two great men could never meet and converse. It is said that Rāmānuja could pay his respects only to Yāmuna's dead body. *Vide PA*. ch. 116. él. 46, ff., in this connection.

#### CHAPTER IV

## YĀMUNA'S WORKS: DETAILED EXAMINATION

It may be recalled that the extant works of Yāmuna are five in number: the  $\acute{S}r\~{i}stuti$  or the  $Catu\acute{s}\'{s}lok\~{i}$ , the Stotraratna, the  $G\~{i}t\~{a}rthasa\~{n}graha$ , the  $\acute{A}gamapr\~{a}m\~{a}nya$  and the Siddhitraya. (48)

We have recently noticed a short work entitled Nāmamauktikamālā<sup>44</sup> attributed to our author. As its very name indicates, there is no philosophy in it. It enumerates one hundred and twenty names of Viṣṇu in twenty stanzas. No other writer is known to have ever referred to this as the work of Yāmuna, and in all probability, this might not have been Yāmuna's composition. We have, however, given the text of this short work in the Appendix to the present thesis.<sup>45</sup>

#### The Two Lost Works

The two works of Yāmuna which we are not yet able to recover are the  $K\bar{a}\acute{s}m\bar{i}r\bar{a}gamapr\bar{a}m\bar{a}nya^{46}$  and the Purusanirnaya, or the  $Mah\bar{a}purusanirnaya$ . References to these are made by Yāmuna himself in his  $Agamapr\bar{a}m\bar{a}nya$ .

The Kāśmirāgamaprāmānya, it is said, establishes the revealed character (apauruṣeyatva) of the Ekāyanaśākhā, which the Pāñcarātrins claim as the source of their Agama literature. The very fact that a separate work had to be written upholding

<sup>43.</sup> See p. 2 above.

<sup>44.</sup> This is a palm-leaf manuscript in Telugu characters deposited in the Govt. Oriental Mss. Library under R. No. 174 (1). The same work also appears on paper in the above Library in the same script, under D.No. 8933.

<sup>45.</sup> See Appendix II.

<sup>46.</sup> See pp. 2-3 above regarding its authorship.

the validity of the  $Ek\bar{a}yana$  indicates that this  $ś\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ , like the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tr\bar{a}gamas$ , was also doubted in respect of its authenticity. This  $Ek\bar{a}yana$  is itself affiliated to the White ( $\acute{S}ukla$ ) Yajurveda. Yāmuna alludes to this  $Ek\bar{a}yana$  at least thrice in his  $Agamapr\bar{a}m\bar{a}nya$ . It may be interesting to note that Nāgeśa, a late writer, identified this  $Ek\bar{a}yanaś\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$  with the  $K\bar{a}nva$  recension of the  $\acute{S}ukla$  Yajurveda, in his work entitled  $K\bar{a}nvaś\bar{a}kh\bar{a}mahimasangraha$ . Pandit Bhagavad Datta, however, thinks that such an identification is wrong on the ground that the  $Jay\bar{a}khya$   $Samhit\bar{a}$  (ch. 20, sls. 262 and 269) treats the  $Ek\bar{a}yana$  separately from the four Vedas. The  $Ch\bar{a}ndogya$  passage where reference to the  $Ek\bar{a}yana$  occurs first, 9 also distinguishes the  $Ek\bar{a}yana$  from the Vedas.

Pandit Bhagavad Datta further tells us that the  $Ek\bar{a}yanas\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$  might have been a scripture on bhakti, and consisted of some mantras from the Vedas, some  $Br\bar{a}hmana$  portions and other matters, quite independently. Among the Vedas, Yajurveda might have formed a large part of its content. He cites the  $S\bar{a}ttvata$   $Samhit\bar{a}$  (ch.25, s1. 94) to support his statement. He also quotes from the same source (ch. 25, sls. 8 and 53) that the mantras found there, viz., "Om namo brahmane" and "Ajasya  $n\bar{a}bhau$ ", do not originally belong to the  $Ek\bar{a}yana$  and that the latter mantra is actually found in the Rgveda (10-82-6). 50

In another place <sup>51</sup> however, Pandit Datta, quoting from the  $Jay\bar{a}khya\ Samhit\bar{a}$  (ch. 1. sls. 109, 111, 115 and 116), admits that

the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tr\bar{a}gama$  should have had some special relation with the  $K\bar{a}nvas\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ . The verses from the  $Jay\bar{a}khya$  numbered above, indicate that the followers of the  $Pa\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$  mainly adopt the  $K\bar{a}nvas\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$  for their rituals and also that many of the  $Pa\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$   $ac\bar{a}ryas$  belong to it.

The *Puruşanirnaya*, says Yāmuna, is devoted to establishing Nārāyaṇa's supremacy over other deities.

It is only Vedānta Desika who rarely refers to this work of Yāmuna. He does not quote any passage from it. With the very meagre information available purely from the few references made by Desika we can arrive at the following general conclusions regarding the nature of this text.

#### 1. Nyāyasiddhāñjana : ch. III. p. 225 :

"atharvasirassvetāsvatarādīnām nirvāhah puruşanirnaye prapancitah, srībhāşyakāraisca vedārthasangraha-bhāşyādişu".

#### 2. Nyāyapariśuddhi: p. 148:

#### 3. $Saccaritrarak s \bar{a}$ : ch I. p. 46:

"na kevalam bhagavadrāmānujamunibhireva mahopanişadupāttā, api tu tatparamācāryair bhagavadyāmunamunibhirapi puruşanirnaye samupāttā".

#### 4. Stotraratnabhāşya: śl. 14, p. 49:

"evam samhāryatva-samhartrtva-rakṣyatva-rakṣakatva janyatva-janakatva - adhistheyatvādhisthātrtvādivaidharmyavargair uktaiśca puruṣanirṇayādiṣu prapañcitair hetubhih tvadanyeṣu kvacidapi svātantryaśankā ca na syāditi......"

## 5. Gītārthasangraharakṣā: śl. 1, pp. 3-4:

"nārāyaṇaḥ param brahma iti viśeṣatassāmānyataśca vyapadeśadvayam; anena avibhaktikepi nārāyaṇānuvākavākye

<sup>47.</sup> This is a paper manuscript of the Govt. Oriental Mss. Library, in Devanāgarī script, under R. No. 2389. The author quotes passages from works like the *Mahābhārata*, the *Bhāgavata*, the *Viṣnupurāna*, the *Harivamśa* and the *Pāñcarātrāgamas*, in support of his view. The synonymy of the Ekāyana is given by the author (p. 2):

<sup>&</sup>quot;iyam suddhayajussākhā prathametyabhidhīyate mūlasākheti cāpyuktā tathā caikāyanīti ca ayātayāmayajusā tathā moksaikasādhikā ityādyanekanāmāni santyasyāstatra tatra vai"

<sup>48.</sup> Vide VVI. (Part I) p. 237

<sup>49.</sup> *Ibid. Cf. Chāngogya* VII-1-2 : "Rgvedam bhagavo 'dhyemi....ekāyanam".

<sup>50.</sup> Vide VVI., p. 238.

<sup>51.</sup> Ibid. pp. 168-69.

pūrvāparavākyacchāyānusārāt śākhāntarasavisarjanīyapathanācca vyastatvam vyanjitam; tena ca sarvaparavidyopāsyaviśeṣanirdhāranārthatayā kevalaparatattvapratipādanaparanārāyanānuvākasidha evāsya śāstrasya viṣayah, tadvibhūtitvena 'viśvamevedam puruṣaḥ' ( $Tai.N\bar{a}$ ) itivat samānādhikaranatayā tatrāmnātānām brahmasivendrādīnam nārasabdārthānāmihāpi 'brahmānamīsam" ( $Gīt\bar{a}:XI-15$ ) ityādibhistadvibhūtyekadesāsrayatvam pratipādyata iti khyāpitam; utkam ca stotre: 'svābhāvika.....vipruṣaste' (śl.11) iti; samwitsiddhau ca advitiyasrutivyākhyāne ca darsitam: 'yathā colanṛpah ......vipruṣah' (p. 274) iti; puruṣanirnaye caitatprapanco grāhyah"

It appears from these statements that the *Purusanirnaya* establishes the supremacy of Nārāyaṇa on the strength of various authoritative texts (mainly the *Upanisads*), reinforced by reasonings.

The first of the above references mentions that *Upaniṣads* like the *Atharvaśiras* and the *Śvetāśvatara*, which are full of statements glorifying Śiva or Rudra as the Prime Cause of the creation etc. of the universe and also as the sole object of meditation, are all interpreted in the *Puruṣanirnaya* in such a way that there is no contradiction with other *Upaniṣadic* statements which glorify Nārāyaṇa as the Supreme Lord. The *Vedārthasangraha* and the *Śrībhāṣya*, to which Deśika himself draws our attention (see statement no. 1 above), indicate or perhaps give in detail the way in which Yāmuna himself had interpreted these texts.

The second of the above statements tells us that the *Puruṣanirnaya*, following the *Matsya Purāna*, classifies the *purānas* into the *sāttvika*, *rājasa* and *tāmasa* **types** and gives primary significance to the statements of the *sāttvika-purānas* like the *Viṣnupurāna*, regarding the supremacy of the Deity. It is clear that the *Viṣnu* and such other *purānas* coming under the *sāttvika* category glorify Nārāyana's supremacy in unmistakable terms.

The third statement of Desika reveals that Yāmuna employed statements of the *Mahopaniṣad* like "eko ha vai nārāyaṇa āsīt na brahmā nesānaḥ" in his *Puruṣanirṇaya*, to prove that Nārāyaṇa is the Supreme Godhead. Nārāyaṇa existed prior to the cosmic creation to the exclusion of all other deities like Brahmā and Rudra, and this prior existence determines His prime causal character and consequently, His supremacy.

The fourth of the above statements makes it clear that the sovereignty of Nārāyana had been established in the *Purusanirnaya* on the following grounds: that He is the Destroyer, Protector and Originator of all beings and that all the beings are conversely destroyed, protected and originated and supported by Him alone. This clearly determines the superiority of Visnu to others.

The last of the above references tells us that in the Puruṣanirṇaya, the author proved the sovereignty of Nārāyaṇa on the evidence of the Upaniṣadic texts as well as the  $G\bar{\iota}t\bar{a}$  on the ground that all other deities including Brahmā, Śiva and Indra, are but mere drops in the unbounded ocean of His glory.

We have to content ourselves with the relevant portions of the *Stotraratna* and the *Agamaprāmānya* where Yāmuna deals with the question of the supremacy of Visnu.

#### (a) The Śrīstuti

The shortest of all the extant works of Yāmuna is the Śrīstuti. It is in four ślokas from which it derives its popular name Catuśślokī. Though short, this work has its own importance in the South Indian Śrīvaiṣnava religious literature because the author here explains the vital position of Lakṣmī as the Consort of Lord Nārāyaṇa and the Mediator between Him and His devotees. This work also happens to be the first of its kind in the Śrīvaiṣṇava stuti-literature of the South of the later period. It has a lucid commentary by Veńkaṭanātha, and the ideas regarding Lakṣmī in the Śrīvaiṣṇava theology that have been developed by later writers go ultimately to this hymn of Yāmuna.

 $<sup>52.\</sup> Vide\ Mahopanisad:$  I. These form the opening words of the Upanisad.

<sup>53.</sup> There is a commentary on the hymn in *manipravāļa* style by Periyavāccān Pillai.

The  $Catusslok\bar{\imath}$  should be viewed as a prelude to the next work of Yāmuna, viz., the Stotraratna, because it is as holding the vital position as Mediator of Divine Grace that Laksmī is praised as the Supreme in this hymn. In the Stotraratna, the Lord, between whom and the devotees Laksmī acts as the Mediator, is the subject of a philosophical stotra. Therein Viṣnu is described as the source of even Lakṣmī's greatness.  $^{54}$ 

As explained by Venkatanātha in the introductory verse to his commentary on the *Catuśślokī*, Lakṣmī in constant companionship with Lord Nārāyana, exerts a helpful influence on Him and allays the fears of all devotees in approaching Him, like a beloved mother. The supremacy of Viṣnu had, no doubt, been established in the *Brahmasūtra* itself, but the present attempt of the author, according to Venkatanātha, is to establish the same in association with His Consort also. 56

The Power or Śakti of Lord Visnu and already been identified with Śrī or Laksmī in the older literature. In fact, the concept of Divine Power as a goddess in association with a Deity, or independently, is as old as the Rgveda.

# The Concept of Śakti

The concept of a Supreme Being with spouse and offspring looks indeed authropomorphic, but the conception is to be understood in a symbolic way to understand its philosophical implication. It is to the *Rgveda* that we have again to go for the origin of the conception of the power of the Supreme Being conceived as a female Deity, that is, as different forms of Śakti.

The Rgveda employs terms like "śakti", "māyā" and "śacī" (in plural) to denote Divine Power.<sup>57</sup> One hymn"<sup>58</sup> tries to fuse

all the different "śacīs" (powers) of Indra into a single Supreme Goddess called "Śaci". She is expressly named "Indrāni", i.e., Indra's consort, in other rks. 59 There was a conscious effort on the part of the Vedic seers to unite all the minor gods into one Supreme God, Prajāpati or Viśvakarman, and all the female deities like Dhisanā and Sarasvatī into one Supreme Goddess called "Vāk".60 Such a comprehensive conception of a Mother Goddess we see in the Ambhrnī Sükta<sup>61</sup> where Vak declares Herself as being at the root of the powers of all the gods, the prosperity and riches of the land and the intellect of the wise. thus foreshadowing the later Sakti-trinity of Pārvatī, Laksmī and Sarasvati. The Atharvaveda faintly suggests the wifely relation of Vāk with Prajāpati, who is now styled "Paramesthin". 62 Sarasvati, invoked both as a river and goddess, and the river Sindhu are glorified as "ambitamā" and "mātrtamā" (most benign) respectively.63 It is this motherly aspect that forms the basis of the motherhood characteristic of goddesses like Umä and Śri in later literature. 64 Even male gods like Agni and Indra are conceived of as both father and mother.65

The most natural conception of father and mother finds expression in the Dual Divinity of Heaven and Earth (Dyāvā-Prthivī). 66 Aditi, a full-fledged Vedic goddess, is very often invoked and sought for all-round welfare and also for release from bondage and sin, an idea which becomes the forerunner of the later conception of moksa. 67 Each Vedic god has a consort of his

<sup>54.</sup> Vide SR. śl. 12: "kaśśriśśriyah", etc., and śl. 45: "śriyah śriyam" etc.

<sup>55.</sup> Vide introductory part of the commentary on CS., p. 13: 'śriyam tatsadhrīcīm tadupasadanatrāsaśamanīm''.

<sup>56.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>57.</sup> Cf. I. 109.3: "pitṛṇām śaktiḥ". Also Cf. IV. 22.8 and X. 88.10. Cf. III. 53.2: "....girā śacī vaḥ". III. 53.8: "māyāḥ...kṛṇvānaḥ" and VI. 47.18: "indro māyābhiḥ...."

<sup>58.</sup> Vide SDP, p. 12.

<sup>59.</sup> Ibid. p. 12. Cf. Rgveda I. 82.5,6; III. 53.4, ff; I. 22, 12, etc. Cf. I. 56.4 where the term "Devi Taviși" or "Goddess of Might" occurs.

<sup>60.</sup> *ŚDP*., p. 29.

<sup>61.</sup> Cf. Rgveda X. 10.125. See also MWV, P. 313

Cf. Atharva Veda XIX. 9.3, where "vāk" is called "Devī Paramesthinī".

<sup>62.</sup> Vide *SDP*. p. 30.

<sup>63.</sup> Cf. Rgveda II. 41. 16 and III. 33.3.

<sup>64.</sup> Vide SDP, p. 40.

<sup>65.</sup> Cf. Rgveda VI. 1.5: ".....tvam pitā mātā"; VIII. 98.11: "tvam hi naḥ pitā vaso, tvam mātā satakrato babhūvitha'.... See also V. Raghavan, "The Vedas and Bhakti', Vedanta Kesari, Madras, Dec. 1955, p. 332.

<sup>66.</sup> Vide MW., p. 215.

<sup>67.</sup> Vide MWV., p. 311. Also cf. Rgveda X. 36. 3; X. 100 and X. 101.

own and these consorts are collectively called Devapatnis or Gnās. 68 In the creation-hymn, "nāsdāsīt....", the one Supreme Being is said to have been breathing without air by Its own inherent Power, "svadhā",69

The Power or  $\acute{S}akti$  of the  $Samhit\bar{a}$  literature is referred to as *îksana* or abhidhyāna in the Upanisadic terminology. Accordingly, the Upanisads describe the Highest Being as immersed in *iksana* (reflection or thought) in the first phase of cosmic creation, 70 which "īkṣana" is the same as the "power of creative desire". It is the Brhadaranyaka that expressly makes Sakti the Lord's Consort for the world-evolution in the familiar terms of husband and wife.71 The Śvetāśvatara Upanisad describes Śakti as belonging to God Himself and as "hidden in His own qualities". 72 The Supreme Lord, by virtue of His Śakti, takes diverse complexions, although devoid of any such features, in essence. 78 In VI. 8, this Upanisad says more expressly that the Supreme Being has Sakti or Potency that is supreme and at the same time manifold. 74 In the earlier context referred to above (IV.1), the dynamic aspect of the Supreme is so described that we could see the equation of Sakti with ajā, māyā and prakrti (IV. 5).

# YAMUNA'S CONTRIBUTION TO VIŚISTADVAITA

The different aspects of the Rgvedic female deities may be said to get fused into one full-fledged Goddess of Power in the Ambhrnī Sūkta and into another of plenty in the Śrīsūkta in the Rgveda Khilas (Supplementary Hymns). 75 The Taittirīya Āranyaka speaks of the Supreme Being as having two Consorts, Hri and Laksmī. 76 This Laksmī is sometimes designated Śraddhā and God is sometimes said to owe his glory to Her in such statements as : "śraddhayā devo devatvamaśnute". $^{77}$  The concept of Purusaand Prakrti, already seen in the Upanisads, became the basic philosophical position of the Sāmkhya school, in which all evolution is ascribed to Prakrti. This motherly aspect of the Godhead which emphasises the creative aspect, includes also the aspect of love and affection towards the beings; this latter aspect finds full expression in the Śrīsūkta.

The Śrīsūkta presents the picture of Śrī or Lakṣmī as the goddess of beauty, plenty and prosperity and as the Ruler and Mother of the Universe.78 She is further described as the repository of qualities like magnanimity (audārya)79 and is invoked to bestow prosperity and dispel poverty and ignorance.80 It may be noted that the expression "tām padmanemīm śaranamaham prapadye"81 supplies the germ for the evolution of the Doctrine of Surrender of the Śrīvaisnava school. It is this motherly aspect of God that forms the cardinal doctrine of Śrī in the Śrīvaisnava theology. The concept of Godhood becomes fully realised only when the love aspect of it is fully recognised.82

<sup>68.</sup> Ibid., p. 313. Also cf. Rgveda V. 46. 7-8; "devānām patnīh" and "uta gnāh".

<sup>69.</sup> Rgveda X. 11.129: "nāsadāsīt...ānīdavātam svadhavā tadekam", etc.

<sup>70.</sup> Cf. Chāndogva VI. 2. 3: "tadaiksata bahu syām prajāyeya". See also Taittirīva II. 6.

<sup>71.</sup> MWV. p. 6; cf. Brhadāranyaka 1. 4. 3: "sa haitāvānāsa yathā strīpumāmsau samparisvaktau....tatah patiśca patnī ca abhavatām".

<sup>72.</sup> ŚDP., p. 49. Cf. Śvetāśvatara 1.3 : "devätmaśaktim svagunair nigudhām".

<sup>73.</sup> Cf. Śvetāśvatara IV. 1: "eko varnah bahudhā śaktiyogāt".

<sup>74.</sup> Ibid. VI. 8: "parāsya šaktir vividhaiva śrūyate"

<sup>75.</sup> MW. p. 2.

<sup>76.</sup> Taittirīya Āranyaka III. 13. 2: "hrīśca te laksmīśca patnyau".

<sup>77.</sup> Taittiriya Samhitā I. 111. 2,9. Ranganāthamuni of about the 12th cen. A.D., the Vaisnava commentator on the Śrīsūkta, identifies goddesses like Śraddhā, Medhā and Bhūmi with Śrī. See the Ś $r\bar{i}s\bar{u}kta$ with his commentary, pp. 1-9 (published at Pudukkottai).

<sup>78.</sup> Cf. "İsvarim sarvabhūtānām" (rk-9); "mātaram padmamālinīm" (rk-11) and "mataram śriyam" (rk-12).

<sup>79.</sup> Ibid. "devajustām udārām" (rk-5).

<sup>80.</sup> Ibid. "māyāntarāyāsca bāhyā alaksmīh" (rh-6).

<sup>81.</sup> Ibid. rk-5. Cf. also Durgā Sūkta of the Rgveda Khila X. 127.12 where again "saranamaham prapadye" occurs:

<sup>&</sup>quot;tāmagnivarnām tapasā įvalantīm vairocanīm karmaphalesu justām| Durgam devim saranamaham prapadye sutarasi tarase namah".

<sup>82.</sup> Vide "Mazdāism in the Light of Visnuism" by A. Govindācārya,

p. 52.

The *Rgvedic* Sakti acquires a personal form and name in the *Kenopanisad* as "Umā of golden hue". It is rightly observed that "She forms the assuaging common ground, a bridge between Siva and Visnu, being described as the sister of the latter and spouse of the former" in the *Mahābhārata* and the *Purāṇas*.

The worship of Śakti as a separate cult had a greater development in Śaivism, especially in the Tāntric schools. Śakti came to be viewed in different ways by different schools of thought, but in all these interpretations, the difference is one of terminology, but not of essence. The different interpretations are facilitated by the fact that energy or  $\acute{sakti}$  can be treated as either identical with or separate from the possessor thereof. 84

The Siddhanta school of Saivism of South India, which maintains three main and eternal categories, viz., Pati (Lord Śiva), paśu (the bound self), and Pāśa (the bond) speaks of Śakti as inseparable from the Lord.85 Siva and Sakti are compared here to the sun and his radiance.86 However, the idea of husband and wife is read into this doctrine87 and accordingly, Śakti is made the spouse of Siva. The importance Sakti claims in this school may be gauged from the fact that the entire world of name and form is attributed to Śakti, which is both conscious and infinite.88 Though essentially one, Śakti is viewed as infinite with reference to the various objects, and is also said to form the very body of Śiva. Regarding cosmic creation, Śiva is conceived as the efficient cause. Māyā as the material cause and Śakti, which is diverse as  $icch\bar{a}$  (will),  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  (knowledge),  $kriy\bar{a}$  (action) etc., as the instrumental cause. In spite of its importance in this doctrine, Śakti is prevented from becoming predominant as in Śāktism by subordinating it always to Siva, the Supreme Being, as an instrument in the process of world-evolution. It is also mentioned that Śakti is an attribute of Śiva, the substrate.89 Evolution of the world is said to take place only when the Lord wills it.90

The Spanda or the Pratyabhijñā school of Kashmir Śaivism represented by authors like Vasugupta and Abhinavagupta, also treats Śakti on similar lines. Here Śiva is the only ultimate and the highest principle characterised by Perfect Selfhood (paripūrna-ahantā) and absolute freedom (svātantrya). He is of the form of Light (prakāśa) and in the dynamic aspect as a Creator, He is called vimarśa or spanda (meaning, the throbbing or spontaneous vibration of cit or caitanya). This vimarśa is designated as His śakti, and these two aspects, viz., vimarśa and Prakāśa represent the twin forms of the Lord. It may be noted that the īkṣana of the Upaniṣads becomes the vimarśa of this school.

Mālinivijayottaravārtika, the source-book of this school, says that there is absolutely no distinction between Śakti and Śiva. Fa In the later period, the element of Bliss (ānanda) also found a place in this concept of Śakti. God, who creates the universe by His own wonderful and inherent power (śakti), with the help of no extraneous factor like karman or māyā, Himself appears as the jīvas on one hand and as the objects of their enjoyment on the other. The Power of the Lord gets manifested in the form of the universe, and this manifestation, called technically ābhāsa or ābhāsana, is real but not illusory as held by the Advaitins. The Śakti of the immutable Śiva has five

<sup>83.</sup> Vide MW., p. 5 and IP. II., p. 734.

<sup>84.</sup> Vide introduction to SAN., p. 17.

<sup>85.</sup> See ŚS., p. 107.

<sup>86.</sup> TVC., p. lxxxii.

<sup>87.</sup> ŚS., p. 107.

<sup>88.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 45.

<sup>89.</sup> ŚS., fn., p. 54.

<sup>90.</sup> LDC., p. 351 ff.

<sup>91.</sup> ŚDP., p. 65.

<sup>92.</sup> LDC., p. 367

<sup>93.</sup> MW., p. 4.

<sup>94.</sup> See p. 20. above.

<sup>95.</sup> MWV., p. 6. Also cf. Introduction to Tantraśāstra by Sir John Woodroffe, p. 5.

<sup>96.</sup> SDP, p. 63. Cf. the following quoted there:

<sup>&</sup>quot;śaktiśca no śaktimato vibhinnā, tenaiti no bhedamiyam pṛthaktvam amātṛtāyām na ca śaktirasti, tena svarūpam na hi śaktyayuktam"

<sup>97.</sup> Ibid., p. 65.

<sup>98.</sup> IP., II. p. 733.

<sup>99.</sup> See LDC., pp. 357-58. Also see the following quoted there, as from the Pratyabhijñāhrdaya, p.3: "cideva bhagavatī, svacchatantrarūpā, tattadanantajagadātmanā sphurati". Also cf. the statement: "durghaṭasampādanasamarthaḥ śaktiviśeṣaḥ".

important phases—cit, ānanda, icchā, jñāna and kriyā, which evolve the five transcendental tattvas of this school, viz., Śiva, Śakti, Sadāśiva, Īśvara and Sadvidyā respectively. 100

The Śākta school, as its very name implies, makes Śakti more prominent and powerful than Śiva Himself. Apart from Śakti, Śiva is said have no independent existence at all. 101 The philosophical heights to which the Śāktas have exalted Śakti in this system can well be understood from a statement of the Kubjikā Tantra (ch. I) that "it is not Brahmā, Viṣṇu or Śiva that create, sustain and destroy, but Brāhmī, Vaiṣṇavī and Rudrāṇī; their husbands are but as dead bodies". 102 Śakti is only Brahman conceived in Its motherly aspect (ambikā) as the Creatrix and Nourisher of the Universe. 103 The Vāyavīya Samhitā of the Śivapurāṇa (Uttara V-15) refers to the motherly aspect of Umā or Pārvatī by the expressive term, prasavadharmiṇī. 104 The relation that subsists between Śiva and Śakti is one of identity and the one cannot even be conceived to exist without the other, just as fire cannot be conceived without the quality of burning. 105

Śakti, held by the followers of this school as Divine, is glorified as Pure Consciousness (caitanya) and Supreme Power (Parāśakti). 106 Though formless in the absolute sense, Śakti assumes many visible forms for facilitating the meditational purposes of Her devotees. 107 Śakti, which is three-fold as icchā, jñāna and kriyā, 108 is not only the creative principle but the

destructive principle as well. 109 The Niruttara Tantra emphasises that correct knowledge regarding the Power of Sakti is indispensable for one desirous of moksa. 110

The Lingāyata or the Vīraśaiva school which adopts the philosophy and terminology of Kashmir Śaivism to a large extent, holds Śiva, the Supreme Being, to be of the form of Light (prakāśa). He possesses vimarśa or self-consciousness. This is but His Śakti which is three-fold is icchā, jñāna and kriyā. Through it, He directly perceives the world. He is the Enjoyer (bhoktr) and everything else is for His enjoyment (bhogya). 113

The Śakti which inheres in the Lord by the reflex relation of identify, <sup>114</sup> is called His *dharmacārinī* (co-performer of His functions), since It acts according to His will. <sup>115</sup> In this supreme state, Śakti is identified with *śuddha*-(or pure) *māyā*, with no contamination of *tamas* in it, being conditioned by *sattva* alone. <sup>116</sup>

Śakti, the Divine Will with its locus fixed in Śiva, the Absolute Truth, is integrally associated with Him. This association, called technically  $samav\bar{a}ya$ , gets a special designation,  $s\bar{a}marasya$ , in this system. Sakti, though conceived here as all-in-all from the cosmological, theological and epistemological standpoints, is always held subordinate to Śiva. The vimarśa-śakti of the Lord is variously designated caitanya, spanda,  $mah\bar{a}satt\bar{a}$ ,  $par\bar{a}$   $v\bar{a}k$ ,  $par\bar{a}nanda$ , etc. This system also came to be known as  $\acute{S}aktivi\acute{s}ist\bar{a}dvaita$ , because of this conception of Śiva as characterised and distinguished ( $vi\acute{s}ista$ ) by His own Śakti.

<sup>100.</sup> AG., p. 240 ff.

<sup>101.</sup> LDC., p. 437. Also cf. SL., śl. 1: "śivaśśaktyā yuktaḥ" etc.

<sup>102.</sup> Quoted in *Introduction to Tantraśāstra*. fn., p. 10. *Cf. YT.*, I. 16b : "śivapretasamārūdhām" etc.

<sup>103.</sup> Vide Introduction to Tantraśāstra, p. 5.

<sup>104.</sup> ŚDP., p. 43.

<sup>105.</sup> ŚIL., p. 22, where the following is quoted as from the *Lingapurāṇa*: "umāśankarayor bhedo nāstyeva paramārthataḥ". The following is also quoted here as from the commentary on the *Tattvaprakāśa*: "seyam parā śaktiḥ.....parameśvarādabhinnā"

<sup>106.</sup> Ibid. p. 9.

<sup>107.</sup> Ibid. p. 86.

<sup>108.</sup> IP. II. p. 735.

<sup>109.</sup> ŚIL., p. 20.

<sup>110.</sup> I.P., II. p. 736. Cf. "śaktijňānam vinā devi nirvāņam naiva jāyate", quoted there.

<sup>111.</sup> *LDC.*, p. 432.

<sup>112.</sup> Ibid. 431.

<sup>113.</sup> Ibid. p. 434

<sup>114.</sup> *Ibid.* pp. 430, 434. On p. 437 is the following quotation, as form the *Siddhāntaśikhāmani*:

<sup>&</sup>quot;sāmarasyābhedalakṣaṇatādātmyasambandhena vartamānā".

<sup>115,</sup> ŚDP., p. 204.

<sup>116.</sup> Ibid. pp. 205-206.

<sup>117.</sup> VW., p. 9.

<sup>118.</sup> LDC., p. 436.

<sup>119.</sup> VW., p. 22.

<sup>120.</sup> LDC., p. 435.

<sup>121.</sup> Ibid. p. 437.

The Śivādvaita of Śrīkantha makes Śakti the very essence of Śivatattva. Śiva the Supreme Lord and Śakti, which is identified with Umā, are inseparable from each other<sup>122</sup> and there is no difference between them, even as between the moon and her rays. <sup>123</sup> Śrīkantha exalts Śakti to the greatest heights by holding it to form the very source of the qualities, glory and existence of Śiva. <sup>124</sup> The entire world consisting of sentient and insentient entities is due to the transformation of *Cit-Śakti*, which is same as the *Brahman* which is of the form of bliss. <sup>125</sup> There are no two different entities as Śiva and Śakti. Śiva qualified by Śakti is the only reality. <sup>126</sup>

The *Pāñcarātrāgamas*, too, do not differ much from the concepts of Śakti sketched above. They speak of the absolute identity of Śakti and the Śaktimat, identified with Lakṣmī and Viṣnu respectively. The *Jayākhya Samhitā* refers to four types of Power (śakti)—Lakṣmī, Kīrti, Jayā and Māyā, 28 ever united with Viṣnu. Of these four, Lakṣmī alone is the most intimately

Also see *ibid.* p. 57: "atra ānandamayarūpā cicchaktih paramātmā siva eva, na tato bhidyate". *Cf. ibid.* ".......śakteh śivābhedah prasādhitah" (p. 58): ".....evam svarūpābhinnāyā eva cicchakteh", etc. (p. 61), and "evem ca brahmacicchakteh sakalacetanācetanaprapancākāratvam tasyā eva brahmasvarūpatvam tadīyasakalaguņagaņarūpatvam brahmaņo nirvikāratvamiti arthacatuṣṭayamācāryair abhyupagatam; nirguṇam niṣprapancam jivābhinnam śuddhādvaitarūpam brahmeti teṣām paramasiddhāntah" (p. 62).

126. Cf. ibid., translation, p.4.

related to Him, as rays to the sun and waves to the ocean. The Hayasīrṣa Samhitā speaks of the same inseparability of Lakṣmī and Viṣnu, employing the Sāmkhya terminology of Prakṛti and Puruṣa. The Ahirbudhnya Samhitā also believes in the essential identity of Śakti and the possessor thereof. It also mentions that Śakti and its possessor can be treated as two different entities. The entire world consisting of sentient and insentient entities is only the manifestation of the Divine Power. Is

Lakṣmī, the prime cause of all cosmic activities,  $^{134}$  is called here the Universal Mother.  $^{135}$  In Śrīvaiṣnava theology, the personality and adjuncts of divine beings are designated as  $vibh\bar{u}ti$  or glory, classified as those which are eternal (nitya) and those intended for sport  $(l\bar{\iota}l\bar{a})$ , the former to be seen in the Highest Heaven, and the latter, in the manifestations elsewhere. Lakṣmī is said to have these two glories  $(vibh\bar{u}tis)$  under Her control.  $^{136}$ 

<sup>122.</sup> ŚIL. pp. 57-58.

<sup>123.</sup> See ibid. for a quotation from  $\acute{S}ivapur\~ana$ : "nānayorantaram vidyāt candracandrikayoriva".

<sup>124.</sup>  $\dot{SA}$ ., p. 181. Also see  $\dot{SIL}$ . p. 58 for the following: "svābhāvikī paramaśaktih, parabrahmaṇaśśivasya svarūpam ca guṇaśca".

<sup>125.</sup> See Introduction to SAN., p. 17.

<sup>127.</sup> ŚIL., p. 108. Cf. Ah. S. IV. 78a : "vyāpakāvatisamslesāt ekam tattvamivoditau". Also cf. ibid. VI.3 :

<sup>&</sup>quot;naiva śaktyā vinā kaścit śaktimānasti kāraņam na ca śaktimatā śaktir vinaikāpyavatiṣṭhate".

<sup>128.</sup> ŚIL., p. 98.

 $<sup>\</sup>mathit{Cf.\ JS.\ VI.\ 77a}$ : "lakşmih kirtir jayā māyā devyastasyā<br/>śritāh" etc.

<sup>129.</sup> ŚIL., p. 99. Cf. JS.., VI-78:

<sup>&</sup>quot;süryasya raśmayo yadvat ürmayaścāmbudheriva sarvaiśvaryaprabhāveṇa kamalā śrīpatestathā".

The analogy of the moon and her beams is also employed to show the relation of Laksmi and Visnu. *Cf. Ah. S.* "jyotsneva himadidhiteh" (III. 5a) and ".....śitaraśmeriva jyotsnä" (*LX.* 3b).

<sup>130.</sup> Vide the following verse from the HS. (op. cit):

<sup>&</sup>quot;śrīdevī prakṛtiḥ proktā, keśavaḥ puruṣassmṛtaḥ na viṣṇunā vinā devī, na hariḥ padmajāṁ vinā"

<sup>131.</sup> Vide Ah. S. (op. cit): "yā sā śaktirjagaddhetuh kathitā samavāyinī" and "ātmabhūtā hi yā śaktih parasya brahmano mune".

<sup>132.</sup> ŚIL., p. 105. Cf. Ah. S. V. 29a : "śakteh śaktimato bhedād vāsudeva itīryate".

<sup>133.</sup> Cf. Ah. S. III. 6a : "svātantryarūpā sā viṣṇoḥ prasphurattā jaganmayī". Ibid. LX. 8b : "śuddhāśuddhasvarūpā sā viṣṇuśaktirjaganmayī".

<sup>134.</sup> *Ibid. XLIX.* 32b : ".....mahālakṣmī ḥ.....sarvakāraṇakāraṇam"; also *ibid. XXXVI.* 56-59.

<sup>135.</sup> Ibid. XXXVI. 60b : "....sarvasya jananım lakşmım".

<sup>136.</sup> Vide Ah. S. XLIX. 33: ".....sā hi sarvagatih parā ; tadājňayaiva caratascandrasūryau vihāyasi"; also sls. 55-57.

statements which characterise and distinguish the theological

conception of the Śrīvaisnavas regarding Laksmī. She is spoken

of as dispelling the sins of the devotees and bringing in all-round

welfare, a conception that forms the basis of the idea of her

mediation between the devotee and the Deity, technically, called

purusakāra. 137 The Doctrine of Surrender (prapatti) to Laksmī

is also found here. 138 Goddesses like Umā and Sarasvatī are

spoken of as the different modes of Laksmi's glory. The

inseparable relation of Laksmi with Visnu is expressed by the

specific term, taddharmadharmini. 140 The gracious and redemp-

tive aspects of Laksmi are brought out by interpreting the term

" $\acute{S}ri$ " in different ways—as the destroyer of all sin, benefactor of the universe, the solace of all devotees and the denizen of the

division of this Power as kriyā (action) and bhūti (becoming)

corresponds to the instrumental and the material cause of the

universe. 143 Though these Agamas personify Sakti as Śrī or

Laksmi and make Her the Lord's Spouse, She also seems to have

been viewed as an aspect of the Lord and not as a separate individual in texts which declare that Śakti is related to the Lord

as an attribute is to its substance. 144 Thus, in these Agamas,

Sakti almost usurps the place of the Godhead, being in one aspect

of itself both the instrumental  $(kriy\bar{a})$  and the material  $(bh\bar{u}ti)$  causes of the world. <sup>145</sup> It is not difficult to imagine that it is only

The reason why Divine Power is designated Laksmi is stated to be that it manifests itself as the world. The twofold

This  $Samhit\bar{a}$  is important since it is here that we meet with

29

to preserve the immutable and transcendental character of the Lord that Śrī came to be spoken of as a principle eternally distinct from the Lord. Dr. Schrader observes: "In spite of frequent assurances as to the real identity of Lakṣmī and Viṣnu, the two are actually regarded as different. Even in the pralaya, they do not completely coalesce, but become only, 'at it were', a single principle. 146 Still, the dualism is, strictly speaking, a makeshift for preserving the transcendent character of Viṣnu. Lakṣmī alone acts, but everything She does is the mere expression of the Lord's wishes". 147

The concept of Śakti held by the *Vaikhānasāgamas* too is similar to the concepts traced above. Śrī is here said to be the very glory of Viṣṇu. She is eternal, ever blissful and is of the form of Primordial Nature. She is specifically called here Śakti, and is said to function according to the will of Lord Viṣṇu. 148

The Viṣṇupurāṇa describes the entire universe as a visible manifestation of the Power (śakti) of the Suprme Brahman. 149 This Śakti is classified as parā (belonging to God), aparā (that of the creatures) and avidyā (the veiling power) 150 and names like Āryā and Durgā are also applied to it. 151 Here, Śrī, with whom Śakti is identified, is glorified as the "Supreme Mother-Goddess" and "the Great Cosmic Mother". 152 Her benign nature is beautifully depicted by the expressive and specific epithets, vedagarbhā, devagarbhā, yajñagarbhā 153 and the like. In about 34 verses, She is glorified as the repository of all auspicious qualities, the most prominent of which is mercy. It is this quality

Highest Heaven. 141

<sup>137.</sup> Ibid. 58a: "duritaughanivāraņe"; also śls. 59, 60.

<sup>138.</sup> Cf. ibid. the last lines of ślokas 55, 57, and 56, which read "prasādam prapanne mayi tvam kuruşva".

<sup>139.</sup> Ibid. sls. 62, ff.

<sup>140.</sup> *Ibid. LI*. 58a: tasyānapāyinī śaktirdevī taddharmadharmiņī" also see *ibid*. *LX*. 3a: "yatra sā śaktisamśabdyā visnostaddharmadharmiņī". Also *cf. ibid*. śls. 59-60, 71a.

<sup>141.</sup> *Ibid. LI.* 61b-62a : "śrņāti nikhilān doṣān śrīṇāti ca guṇairjagat śrīyate cākhilairnityam śrayate ca param padam"

<sup>142.</sup> Ibid. III. 9a: "jagattayā lakṣyamāṇā sā lakṣmīriti giyate".

<sup>143.</sup> IP., II. p. 689.

<sup>144.</sup> Cf. Ah. S. IV and Laksmitantra II. 2 ff. See HCD., p. 103 145. Ibid.

<sup>146.</sup> Ah. S., IV. 78a.

<sup>147.</sup> Introduction Ah. S., p. 30.

<sup>148.</sup> VK., patala 86, pp. 493-94:

<sup>&</sup>quot;tadviṣṇorvibhūtih, śrīḥ, sā ca nityā ādyantarahitā.....viṣṇoḥ saṅkalpānurūpā nityānandamayī, mūlaprakṛtirūpā śaktiḥ".

<sup>149.</sup> Cf. VP., I. 22-54 : "parasya brahmanassaktistathedamakhilam jagat". Also see SIL., p. 73.

<sup>150.</sup> VP., VI. 6. 61: "viṣṇuśaktiḥ parā proktā kṣetrajñākhyā tathāparā avidyā karmasamjñānyā tṛtīyā śaktiriṣyate".

<sup>151.</sup> Cf. IB, V. 1. 82.

<sup>152.</sup> Cf.~ibid.~VIII. 15, 28: "jaganmātā" and V. 2. 7-12: "jagaddhātrī".

<sup>153.</sup> See ŚDP, p. 42.

of hers that is said to be the source of all-round universal prosperty. Here Śri is viewed not only as the Deity of plenty and propserity but as the very embodiment of all branches of knowledge, including the knowledge of the Self  $(\bar{a}tmavidy\bar{a})$ , leading to emancipation  $(vimuktiphalad\bar{a}yin\bar{\imath})$ . She is also said to be ever united inseparably with Her Lord and as possessed of eternity and omnipresence like Him. 164

The Mārkandeya Purāna calls Sarasvatī (with whom Lakṣmī has been identified in the Viṣnupurāna) the Śakti of Lord Viṣnu and Universal Mother (jagaddhātrī, literally the supporter of the universe). Lakṣmī is also called Ambikā which again indicates Her motherly character. 155 Śakti, the Power of the Lord, is said to create the universe, and when properly propitiated, to grant release to true devotees. 156 This Purāna calls Māyā the Vaiṣnavī Śakti and views it as the cause of both bondage and release. 157

The *Bhāgavata* depicts the Lord (who is identified with Kṛṣṇa) as combining in Himself all sorts of Śakti like *Vidyā* and *Avidyā*. <sup>158</sup> He is also said to create, maintain and destroy the world by His own Power, styled here also *Māyā*. This Power is elsewhere identified with Lakṣmī, His Consort, called Ramā. <sup>159</sup> God is also viewed as both united with and dissociated from His Śakti; in the latter case, the creative aspect is dormant and imbedded within the Supreme Being Himself. <sup>160</sup>

154. Cf. VP. I. 8-15:

"nityaiva sā jaganmātā viṣṇośśrī ranapāyinī yathā sarvagato viṣṇustathaiveyam dvijottama".

155. Vide Mar. Pu. LXXXIV. 1 ff. Cf. SDP., p. 42.

156. Cf. Mar. Pu. op. cit:

"tayā visrjyate viśvaṁ jagadetaccarācaraṁ saiṣā prasannā varadā nṛṇāṁ bhavati muktaye"

157. Cf. ibid. op. cit:

"sā vidyā paramā mukteh hetubhūtā sanātanī samsārabandhahetuśca saiva sarveśvareśvarī"

158. See *ŚIL.*, P. 114.

Cf. Bhā. Pu. IV. 9. 16:

Yasmin viruddhagatayo hyanisam patanti vidyādayo vividhasaktaya ānupūrvyā"

159. Cf. Bhā. Pu. op. cit: III. 9. 23: "eṣa prapannavarado ramayātmaśaktyā....."

160.  $Cf.\ ibid.\ op.\ cit:$  IV. 12. 6 : "yuktam virahitam śaktyā guṇamayyātmamāyayā"

All the ideas traced above in the earlier literature on  $\text{Śr\bar{i}}$ , find a succinct philosophical statement in the  $Catus\'{s}lok\bar{\imath}$  of Yāmuna, which forms the bedrock of all later expositions of the concept of Laksmi.

Yāmuna presents Śri here as the Mistress of the Universe, the repository of all glorious attributes of which Mercy is the most predominant, the sole source of universal prosperity and the inseparable and devoted Consort of the Supreme Lord, Visnu.

Yāmuna first explains the two aspets of Śrī, that which abides by the Lord and shares all the quantities, attributes and other paraphernalia associated with Him (nitya-vibhūti) and the other, Her dynamic aspect, through which She becomes responsible for the evolution of the universe, through the workings of māyā or prakrti (līlā-vibhūti). All sentient beings, including the higher orders of divinity, come under Her endless mainfestations, even the highest of them being only subordinate to Her. Being the source of the entire creation, not only is Her glory unbounded and beyond description, but She is also the fountain-head of all the beauty of creation.

In the second stanza, Yāmuna lays stress on the redemptive aspect of Śrī as the Universal Mother and refers to Her unbounded Mercy and Love in saving the souls who submit themselves to Her in utter surrender.

The next verse describes Śrī in Her protective aspect. It is as the result of the display of Her benevolent powers that all creation flourishes and prospers. Conversely, decay noticed in the creation sets in when the influence of Her benevolence is absent. Stress is further laid on Her gracious features by declaring that the material and spiritual status of humanity is solely dependent upon that grace, either directly or indirectly.

The fourth and the final śloka says that Lakṣmī, though functionally distinguishable from the Supreme Being, is philosophically part and parcel of Him. Right from the transcendental aspect of the Supreme Lord, down to His manifestation on the

<sup>161.</sup> According to Periyavāccān Pillai, the reference here is to what happens during the cosmic dissolution or praļaya.

mundane earth, there is no aspect of His that is not associated with Śrī. That is to say, all His different aspects are expressions of sublimity, beauty and love.

The two main schools of Śrīvaisnavism, viz., the Vadagalai and the Tengalai or the Northern and the Southern Schools. represented by Venkatanātha and Pillai Lokācārya respectively, entertain divergent views regarding the exact nature and position of Laksmi. Thus, the Vadagalais hold Śri to be essentially of the same nature as Her Lord, infinite and uncreate, and as constituting the godhead together with Him. She can also mediate between Him and the devotee becasue of Her close association with the former. The Tengalais, on the other hand, consider Her as essentially belonging to the category of the individual selves (iīvas). Though finite, She has the power to assume magnitude, unlike the jīvas, and can thus mediate between God and man. This is one of the eighteen doctrinal differences (aṣṭādaśabhedas) existing between the Northern and the Southern Schools of Visistadvaita. (For a detailed account of these differences, see Appendix II to Two Great Acharyas -Vedanta Desika and Manavala Mamuni by Dr. V. Varadachari. Prof. M. Rangacharya Memorial Trust, Madras, 1983).

In the course of his commentary on the first verse of the *Catuśśloki*, Venkatanātha refers to many views regarding the exact nature of Lakṣmi and refutes them in accordance with his own line of thought.

The prima facie views may be stated as follows:

- 1. Some identify Laksmi with the inert material Nature (prakṛti) to be superintended or acted upon by the Lord, who is the Designer-architect of the universe. In their view, Laksmi is not a sentient being at all.
- 2. Others identify Her with certain qualities of God like sattā (existence), ahantā (egoity) and vidyā (knowledge). In their view, Laksmi does not have a personality of Her own.
- 3. A third view is that the Lord, qualified by sattā (existence) etc., is Himself called Śrī or Lakṣmī.
- 4. Another view is that the Supreme Being, associated with an eternal and different body in the form of Śrī, is styled Laksmī.

5. Another school opines that the Lord, of His own accord, takes up occasionally a female form for the sake of enjoyment and is designated Śrī. <sup>162</sup> The adherents of this school corroborate this by referring to the *jaganmohinī* manifestation <sup>163</sup> of the Lord (daityamohana-bhūmikāparigraha).

- 6. Still others maintain that part of the original form of the Lord Himself, for the sake of enjoyment, become possessed of a different ego, assumes a parmanent female form and is termed Śrī. Such an opinion accounts for the references to Śrī found in some texts as both one with and different from the Lord on one hand, and as a distinct sentient being on the other.
- 7. Yet another opinion holds that the aspect of the Brahman which is utilised for world-creation, is itself possessed by a separate ego and is called Śrī. This possession by a different ego is said to take place either by its own natue  $(svabh\bar{a}va)$  or its capacity to transform (parinatisakti), or due to the presence of a delimiting adjunct  $(up\bar{a}dhibheda)$ .
- 8. A further view referred to is that the part of the Brahman which is delimited by a particular adjunct  $(up\bar{a}dhi)$ , is called Śrī and is, as such, different from the Lord.
- 9. Still others qualify the above view, when they say that "transformation into a manifestation" (avatāraparināma) itself acts as an *upādhi* upon the *Brahman* and that such a delimited *Brahman* is styled Laksmī.
- 10. Some texts mention that half of the Lord's transcendental body is composed of Lakṣmī. Some take this as indicating that (a) the Lord and His consort Lakṣmī must have only one body (*vigrahaikya*), or that (b) their original nature is only one but not manifold (*svarūpaikya*), or that (c) they are both different and non-different from each other.

<sup>162.</sup> *Cf.* p. 15 of Deśika's commentary on *Catuśślokī*: "svayameva bhogārtham parigrhītakādācitkakāntāvigrahaḥ".

<sup>163.</sup> Of the several manifestations of Lord Visnu, the *jaganmohinī* is one in which the Lord appears as the most entrancing female on the occasion of the churning of the milky ocean. Requested to arbitrate between the *Devas* and *Asuras*, the Mohinī apportions *amrta* or nectar in favour of the former.

11. Another view is that Cosmic Illusion or  $M\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ , which is itself unreal, veils the essential nature of the pure and unqualified Brahman. When it veils the Brahman united with a particular susperimposed form, the  $M\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  is termed Śrī.

All these views may roughly be brought under three groups: those that speak of Laksmi as insentient; those which hold Her to be of the form of the qualities (gunas) of the Brahman; and those which maintain that She is part and parcel of the original nautre of the Brahman Himself. Venkatanātha refutes all the above views.

The first and the second views which identify Laksmi with the material Nature (prakrti) and with the qualities like sattā and ahantā of the Lord are entirely wrong, because the very texts from which they derive their inspiration describe Śrī as a sentient being. In clear and unmistakable terms, the sentient character of Śrī has been indicated by Yāmuna in the verse by the two terms. "te" and "tvām", and also by the address, "bhagavati". 164 which is possible only in the case of Laksmi being a sentient being. As regards terms like sattā and ahantā applied to Śri in some texts, they should be understood as referring to Her internal and close relation with the Lord. The fact that Laksmi is entirely different from the material prakrti, is shown by the terms, "te" and "yavanikā", where prakrti as māyā is compared to a curtain. In some texts, however, we find terms like prakrti employed to refer to Sri, but this is no proof of the identity between the two. For then, Vasudeva, who is also referred to by the term prakrti, will have to be identified with it, which. however, is absurd.

As regards the next three views (nos. 3,4 and 5) which maintain that Laksmi is a part of the Lord Himself under certain conditions, but not different from Him, Desika states that they stand refuted by the very texts on which they purport to be based,

which expressly declare Śrī as a being perpetually different from Bhagavān. Above all, there is a Vedic text, which in clear and unmistakable terms pinpoints the difference of form subsisting between the Lord and Laksmī, His Consort: "hrīśca te laksmīśca patnyau". 165 This fact has been referred to by the author of the stuti by the phrase, "kāntaste" ('your beloved Lord'), which clearly marks the difference between Laksmī and Viṣnu.

Referring to the next view (no.6) that a part of the Brahman Himself, when possessed by a separate ego gets the designation "Śri", Desika takes serious exception to it as it lacks the support of all proofs, which, on the contrary, declare that the original nature of the Lord being partless (svarūpato niravayavam), does not admit of any partition in it.

The next opinion (no. 7) which is more or less similar to the preceding one, is also rejected on the ground that the *Brahmasūtra* itself maintains that the *Brahman* does not undergo any transformation (parināma) in His essential nature.

The succeeding view (no.8), which speaks of a delimiting adjunct (upādhi) acting upon the Brahman, is also unsound due to the following reasons: No adjunct can act upon the Brahman since He is impartite. As Yāmuna has already explained in his Agamaprāmānya, 166 the question of a delimiting adjunct comes only in the case of a thing that has parts. Even if such a thing were admitted, there crop up many inconsistencies. If the delimiting adjunct., viz., the body which conditions the Brahman, comes into contact with the part that it conditions, releasing the parts already delimited by it, then there is the cessation of the bhoktr (experiencer) so far as the earlier conditioning is concerned and there is no continuity to run through the sucessive conditioning. The net result is that one is landed on the Buddhistic position of flux.

<sup>164.</sup> Cf. CŚ. śl. 1:

<sup>&</sup>quot;kāntaste purusottamah phanipatissayyāsanam vāhanam vedātmā vihagesvaro yavanikā māyā jaganmohini brahmesādisuravrajassadayitastvaddāsadāsīganah srīrityeva ca nāma te bhagavati brūmah katham tvām yayam"

<sup>165.</sup> Taittirīya Āraņyaka, III. 13. 2.

<sup>166. &</sup>quot;Yadapi viyati parimāṇamiha nidarsitam, tadapi vimarsanīyameva; parimāṇam hi nāma desāvacchedaḥ iyattā parito bhāvaveṣṭanamiti yāvat ; na ca nabhasi tadastīti kathamiva tadiha nidarsanatayā nirdisyate?" (ĀP. p. 4).

36 ..

Passing on to the next view (no. 9), which considers that "transformation into an avatāra" is itself an upādhi for the Brahman, the commentator repudiates it on the strength of authoritative texts which speak of Lakṣmī as possessing an eternal body, etc. This is clearly shown by Yāmuna by the phrase "kāntaste", consisting of the two terms "kāntah" and "te" (meaning 'your Consort'), with two different Case-terminations. Citing other texts, Desika asserts that Śrī is an eternally and entirely separate being from Nārāyaṇa.

Further, Laksmi is quite distinct from and suprior to all other beings, human as well as divine, that are bound by *karman*. This is shown by Yāmuna by describing Brahmā and other divine orders with their consorts as attending upon Śrī.

Regarding the question whether Śri and Visnu have one body or not (no. 10), it is answered that the oneness of bodies (vigrahaikya) spoken of in some texts can be accounted for, as due to the mutual desire and agreement of the Divine Couple (ubhayecchā). Identity of form (svarūpaikya), however, cannot be postulated, since such a postulation goes against śrutistatements that Laksmi and Visnu are two different personalities but not one in essence. It may be argued that two Beings are not necessary, since the same God can Himself perform all cosmic functions. But it has already been mentioned that the Vedic text, "hrīśca te laksmīśca patnyau" points out the difference of form subsisting between the Lord and His Consort. All other texts which speak of their oneness will have to be interpreted in conformity with this śruti. If, according to the principle of economy, it is argued that the Lord and His Consort are identical in form, then it may be further asked why on the same principle, the Lord and the individual souls could not become identical. This results in the unity of souls, which is decidedly opposed to the cardinal tenets of the Viśistādvaita philosophy. Unity of souls is refuted in the Śrībhāsya and such other texts. Even on the view that there exists between the Lord and Śri, bhedābheda (difference-cum-non-difference), it is clear that they both cannot be identical. Even if there be some smrti-texts which speak of the unity (aikya) of Laksmi and Nārāyaņa, the term "unity", will

Referring to the next opinion (no. 11) which equates Laksmi with māyā. Desika rejects it summarily on the ground that the school which speaks of an unqualified Brahman and His being veiled by māyā, etc. (i.e. the Advaita), is not acceptable, as has been shown elsewhere. All this has been kept in mind and indicated by Yāmuna when he states that  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  deludes the entire world other than the Divine Couple ("yavanikā māyā iaganmohini"). 170 Continuing, Dešika states that a curtain in general obstructs normal vision; but māyā, compared to a curtain in the verse, fails to obstruct Laksmi's vision because the entire activity of māyā is under the control of Laksmī Herself. 171 Even in the case of the Eternals (nitva), the Liberated (mukta) and the Lord, who are not bound by their past acts (karman), māyā fails to exert any influence. There are, however, some smrti-passages. especially those in co-ordinate predication (sāmānādhikaranya), which identify Laksmi with other goddesses bound by karman. But this does not indicate that even Laksmi's vision, like that of other goddesses, is obscured by māyā. Texts which speak of Lakşmī as on par with Sarasvatī and other goddesses will have to be interpreted as speaking of the manifold glory of Śri.

All such unwarranted opinions are set aside by Yāmuna when he says that even Brahmā and other divine beings, along with their spouses, 172 are only subservient to Lakṣmī. It is further pointed out that the view entertained by some that Brahmā and other gods partake of the essential form of the Lord is mistaken. Equally wrong is the conception that the consorts of these subordinate gods are parts of the form of Lakṣmī.

have to be taken in a secondary sense, as in statements like "rāmasugrīvayoraikyam.", 168 where reference is made to the identity between two friends like Rāma and Sugrīva. 169

<sup>168.</sup> Vide  $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$ , V. 35.52a : "rāmasugrīvayoraikyam devyevam samajāyata"

<sup>169.</sup> See p. 16 of the commentary on CS.

<sup>170.</sup> C. ibid.: māyāyāḥ prastutadampativyatiriktajagan-mohanatvoktyā".

<sup>171.</sup> Ibid.: "tadadhinasarvavyäpäräyä mäyäyäh"

<sup>172.</sup> CŚ. 1: "sadayitastvaddāsadāsi ganah"

Reference is next made to another school, which, while accepting that the Lord and Śrī are two different personalities, is not in favour of the latter's complete supremacy with reference to the two *vibhūtis*. <sup>173</sup> This school bases itself on some Purānic statements that the glory of Laksmī includes only the female principle in the universe. The votaries of the school, therefore, contend that Brahmā and other male gods cannot be held subservient to Laksmī.

Venkatanatha meets this objection by declaring that all beings in the universe, human or divine, are eternally subservient to the Lord and consequently to His Consort Śrī also. The point may be stretched that Śri. Herself being the servant of the Lord, might not be approached and that there is no question of others being subservient to Her. For this, the reply is given that the Consort is nowhere called the servant of the Lord, either in the Vedas or elsewhere. Even granted that the Consort is subservient to the Lord, there is nothing wrong in others being subordinate to the former. Even among the human beings who are primarily subservient to the Lord, one is found subordinate to the other. Moreover, the two vibhūtis are intended for the enjoyment of the Divine Couple; and so, there is nothing wrong in stating that Brahmā and other gods serve both the Lord and His Spouse without any distinction. This has been illustrated on the analogy of sacrificial offerings which are intended for two deities at one and the same time. This fact that all beings, divine as well as human, are subordinate to the Dual Divinity, is further corroborated by citing the authority of a text, 174 which interprets the three constituent elements of the syllable, Om, viz., 'a', 'u' and 'm', as standing for the Lord. His Consort Laksmi and the individual selves respectively, the last of whom, viz., the souls. stand subordinate to the first and the second.

The question would naturally arise whether the position of Lakṣmī extends to the other consorts of Viṣṇu like Bhūmi and Nǐlā, spoken of in some texts. Desika says that we are not concerned with it since all the female principle in the world is included in the personality of Lakṣmī and all that is male in that of Viṣnu.

Concluding his commentary on the first verse, Desika observes that some people confused by the adherents of various schools of thought, come to the drastic conclusion that the real nature of Laksmi is beyond all possible explanation. But the present elucidation of Laksmi's nature sets aside all such opinions. Still there are others who maintain that Laksmi's nature is indefinable either as existent (sat) or non-existent (asat). To them, Desika replies that the very school which employs such terminology and tenaciously harbours such views, namely the Advaita, has already been refuted in other works of Visisṭādvaita.

In the second verse<sup>175</sup> Yāmuna praises Lakṣmī who combines in Herself the qualities of unlimited greatness and easy accessibility (mahattvasangatasaulabhyagunayoga).<sup>176</sup> The glory of Lakṣmī is said to be so vast as not to be adequately comprehended even by Her Omniscient Consort, Himself of unlimited glory. The commentator argues that the inability on the part of the Omniscient Lord to assess Lakṣmī's greatness does not undermine His Omniscience. The two terms 'dāsa' and 'prapanna', are also employed by the author so as to stress the importance of the two closely connected acts of servitude and surrender in lessening the fear of a man while approaching Lakṣmī.

The question now arises as to whether one's surrender to Śrī does not contradict or reduce the value of one's surrender to Viṣṇu. Desika replies in the negative and refers his readers

<sup>173.</sup> See p. 27 above for an explanation of the term "vibhūti".

<sup>174.</sup> Ranganāthamuni, the commentator on the  $\acute{S}r\bar{i}s\bar{u}kta$ , quotes the following, ascribing it to the  $Katha\acute{s}ruti$ : p. 59: "akāreņocyate viṣṇus sarvalokeśvaro hariḥ, uddhṛtā viṣṇunā lakṣmīrukāreņocyate tathā, makārastu tayordāsa iti praṇavalakṣaṇam". However, such a text is not found. The first half of the last line is quoted by Deśika.

<sup>175.</sup> Cf. CS ' \( \) \( 1. \) 2 :

<sup>&</sup>quot;yasyāste mahimānamātmana ivaitvadvallabhopi prabhur nālammātumiyattayā niravadhim nityānukūlam svatah tām tvām dāsa iti parapanna iti ca stosyāmyaham nirbhayo lokaikesvari lokanāthadayite dānte dayām te vidan"

<sup>176.</sup> See p. 17 of the commentary on the above.

to the introductory part of his own commentary on the  $\acute{S}aran\bar{a}gati~Gadya$  of Rāmānuja, 177 where he had examined the issue.

The prima facie view is that surrender to Laksmī is not necessary because the Lord Himself, if properly resorted to, bestows upon the devotee all that could be attained by surrendering to Laksmī. In answer to this, it is said that at the outset one does not know that surrender to the Lord is possible at all. If, however, one is aware of its possibility, then one would utilise it directly for one's one moksa, without aspiring for the intermediary Laksmī-prapatti. If, on the other hand, one does not know that prapatti is accomplishable, then no question of one's resorting to it as a means would arise.

Another argument advanced is that the difficulty regarding prapatti lies only in knowing the meaning of the texts enjoining it and that once the meaning of those texts is ascertained, then it becomes easy for anybody to apply it for attaining moksa. Venkatanātha answers that though prapatti is easy to perform, as it does not involve any difficult ancillaries, even if there is the slightest deviation on one's part like lack of conviction in the saviourship of God (mahāviśvāsa), that itself is enough to render prapatti an impossible task. It is because of this that texts speak of the means of release, viz., prapatti, as both easy and difficult. When a man surrenders to God, he should constantly and continuously have a sincere desire to attain Him, a strong and positive conviction that He and He alone is the saviour, coupled with the negative decision that there is no saviour other than He. It is for the attainment of such a steadfast and uninterruptedly devoted attitude of mind that Laksmi is first resorted to. So, surrender to Laksmi is to be understood as the first phase of the surrender to Vișnu, and there is thus no mutual conflict between these two prapattis.

A further point which Yāmuna brings out in this verse is that though the Lord is all-causal and all-powerful, yet He is not inclined to do anything against the wishes of His Consort Lakṣmī, which means that She is the active or dynamic aspect of the Supreme. The necessity of resorting to the intermediary

principle of Lakṣmi is shown by Yāmuna on the ground that She possesses qualities of compassion and easy accessibility, which are required to induce *prapatti.* <sup>178</sup> In this verse, the glory of Lakṣmi, in its vastness, is also said to be on par with that of Visnu. <sup>179</sup>

Desika, in this connection, objects to the interpretation offered by some to the cosmogonic hymn of the Rgveda, " $n\bar{a}sad\bar{a}s\bar{i}t...$ ", 180 that the term ' $svadh\bar{a}$ ' which occurs in it, refers to Laksmi, it being one of Her names mentioned in the Mahābhārata and such other texts. They argue that the whole passage declares that the Brahman actually breathes or is sustained by Laksmi. 181 This is quite illogical, says Desika, because the Brahman, who has so far been described as the source of the entire world-existence, cannot now be stated to depend upon somebody else for His own breathing. Therefore, the term 'svadha' of the rk is to be explained etymologically either as "the Brahman's own existence" (sva-dhā=svasattā), or as "His capacity or power to sustain the universe Himself", (svakiyam viśvadhāranasāmarthyam). 182 This explanation has the support of the Śrībhāsya too, says Deśika. Even granting that the term 'svadhā' means Laksmī, the passage quoted above should only be taken as presenting the picture of the Supreme Being, Visnu, in close association with His Consort, 183 or as emphasising the love He has for Her. 184 That is to say, the above passage depicts the Supreme Being predominantly in His dynamic aspect.

<sup>177.</sup> Vide Desika's commentary on \$G. p. 98.

<sup>178. &</sup>quot;dānte dayām te vidan" (CŚ. 2)

<sup>179.</sup>  $\mathit{Ibid}$ : "yasyāste mahimānam  $\bar{\mathit{atmana}}$   $\mathit{iva}$  tvadvallabhopi...." etc.

<sup>180.</sup> Rgveda X. 11. 129 : "nāsadāsīnno sadāsīt...ānīdavātam svadhayā tadekam"

<sup>181.</sup> See p. 18, commentary on  $\acute{CS}$ . : "tadadhīnaprāṇanatvam brahmaṇa iti"

<sup>182.</sup> Commentary, p. 18.

<sup>183.</sup> Ibid.: "sahayogavivakṣā"

<sup>184.</sup> Ibid.: "premapāratantrye tātparyam"

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Quoting other texts which speak of the Lord's greatness being only due to His association with Lakṣmī, Desika states that they should also be explained in such a way that the supremacy of the Lord is unimpaired. 185

The comparison made between Lakṣmī and Viṣnu in terms of unlimited glory noted earlier, 186 gives rise to another school which speaks of their total similarity (atyantasāmya). But this "similarity" will have to be interpreted with due regard to the wife-husband-relation accepted in general. If such a distinction in terms of "husband" and "wife" were not shown between the Lord and Lakṣmī, then the texts which speak of approaching the Lord (abhigamana) 187 through Lakṣmī's mediation would cease to have any practical significance.

The commentator then makes an important observation regarding the function of Laksmī in the scheme of release. Even though the Lord is the dispenser of rewards to a devotee, Laksmī has Her own role to play, which is twofold: She shields the jīvas from the Lord's wrath when He frowns at their folly, and when He is in a good disposition, She promptly intensifies His love and mercy for them. Those who hold Viṣnu and Lakṣmī as totally similar to each other, will find it extremely difficult to explain as to how these two can form a couple at all, because some sort of difference is necessary to make the "wife-husband" relation feasible.

In the next verse<sup>189</sup> Yāmuna, according to Deśika, dwells on Lakṣmī's being the goal of all human endeavour. The author

here uses the term, 'manahkāntā' as an epithet of Lakṣmī, which indicates that there is identity of thought and action between the two in bestowing upon their devotees all that they desire. <sup>190</sup> In the first verse, Viṣṇu had been described as Lakṣmī's Consort (kāntaste puruṣottamah) and here Lakṣmī is described as Viṣṇu's Consort (aravindalocana-maṇahkāntā). These two statements when read together, indicate that as regards all actions, there is complete unison and agreement between the two, <sup>191</sup> which means that the harmonious blending of the two aspects of the Supreme Being ensures the good of creation.

This sloka further suggests that the status of the higher order of beings like Indra and Brahmā is also the result of Lakṣmī's grace. Desika argues that since Lakṣmī, who is at the root of the prosperity of other gods is Herself dependent upon Viṣnu for Her own glory, the overwhelming supremacy of Viṣnu becomes self-evident. 192 It is further understood from the verse that the grace of Lakṣmī is at the root of the material as well as the spiritual advancement of all beings, including the attainment of mokṣa. The material prosperity attained by men after worshipping Indra and such other deities should therefore be understood as due mainly to Her grace and those gods merely stand as mediators. 193 The word "karhicit" ('ever') in the verse also points out that the mercy (prasāda) of Lakṣmī does not wear away by the passage of time like that of Indra and other divire beings.

A critic now puts a pertinent question as to how Laksmi could be spoken of as bestowing *moksa* because it is an established fact that the Lord alone is the bestower of it. The statement of this verse that "without the grace of Laksmi, men cannot attain *moksa*", he argues, should therefore be taken as a mere eulogy (*praśamsāmātraparam*)<sup>194</sup>. Quoting from the

<sup>185.</sup> Ibid. p. 19.

<sup>186.</sup> CŚ. 2: "yasyāste mahimānamātmana iva" etc.

<sup>187.</sup> The remaining four observances are : upādāna, ijyā, svādhyāya and yoga.

Cf. PS. Caryāpāda, ch. XIII. śl. 3:

ādyam karmābhigamanamupādānamatah param ijyā ca paścāt svādhyāyastato yogastatah param.

<sup>188.</sup> Cf. p. 16, commentary on CŚ. 2: asti karmārhaphalade patyau kṛtyadvayaṁ śriyaḥ nigrahād vāraṇaṁ kāle sandhukṣaṇamanugrahe.

<sup>189.</sup> CS. 2: "Işattvatkarunâniri kşanasudhāsandhukşanād rakşyate nasam prāk tadalābhatah tribhuvanam sampratyanantodayam śreyo nahyaravindalocanamanah kāntāprasādādṛte samṣṇtyakṣaravaiṣṇavādhvasu nṛṇām sambhāvyate karhicit".

<sup>190.</sup> See p. 20 of the commentary on the above; "sarvāpekṣitadāne tavosṣāmarthyam".

<sup>191.</sup> *Ibid*. "parasparānukūlatayā sarvatra vyāpāre sāmarasyam". 192. *Ibid*. p. 21: "brahmādīnām yadāyattam vaibhavam yasya sā svayam

tasya kaimutyanirdhāryamīśvaratvam śriyaḥpateḥ"

<sup>193.</sup> *Ibid*. 194. *Ibid*.

Sāttvata Samhitā, the Visnu and the Brahma Purānas, Desika answers that Laksmi sets the jivas free from the grip of the three qualities, sattva, rajas and tamas, which are responsible for transmigration. She bestows upon them the qualities of the self like devotion and detachment, which help one to attain mukti and therefore Her importance cannot be underestimated in the scheme of moksa. She acts as the mediator between the Lord the benefactor and the devotee, the beneficiary, 195 a fact admitted by all. Opinion may, however, differ among thinkers, as to whether the determination to confer moksa in the form of complete realisation of the Godhead (paripūrnānubhavapradanasankalpa)196 upon the devotee belongs originally to the Lord alone, or both to Him and His Consort. But on either ground, there could be no doubt regarding the vital position of Laksmi in the scheme of release

In the fourth and final verse<sup>197</sup> Yāmuna says that Lakṣmi is always closely associated with Her Lord in all varieties of His manifestations and that She too is the goal of all human beings, like Him. This verse thus presents Lakṣmī in Her redemptive aspect as Universal Mother. This close union of Śrī with the Lord enables the erring humanity to approach Him without any fear. Desika here observes that attainment of the Lord tastes all the more sweet when Lakṣmī is united with Him, like milk to which sugar has been added. <sup>198</sup>

There are three types of texts: those which speak of Lakṣmī as all-pervasive like Viṣṇu Himself; those which hold Her

as dwelling only in some auspicious things (praśastapadārthamātravāsitvam), and those which attribute subtlety (sūkṣmatva) to Her form. Deśika who believes in the essential pervasiveness of Lakṣmī, tries to reconcile the second and the third types of texts with his own line of approach. Statements that Śrī dwells in auspicious things alone, can be explained as speaking of Her special attachment (abhimānaviśesa) towards those objects. The next problem is to account for the texts which mention Śrī as monadic in form. As we have already noted, it is a disputed point whether Śri is subtle or all-pervasive in form. 199

Desika who represents the Vadagalai school, criticises the Tengalai school which holds Laksmi to be finite in form. The latter school maintains that though finite, Laksmi possesses the power of expansion (vikāsakaśakti) by virtue of which She might, in a sense, be described as "vibhu" or expansive. The argument, according to Desika, is decidedly unorthodox. 200 The Southern school, while maintaining that the Lord is infinite, also holds that He could become finite by virtue of His wonderful power to accomplish even the most difficult things (aghatitaghatanāsāmarthyam).201 The followers of this school, likewise, argue that Laksmi too possesses similar powers and that She too could become infinite, though She might originally be a jīva. Desika objects to this view by saying that the Lord becomes finite only when He ensouls a body and the finiteness is thus not natural with Him. But in the case of Laksmi, no such reason can be attributed to Her becoming infinite. Moreover, if each and everything is said to possess such powers, there would be no end to it, and even the Sarvādvaita and the Bhedābheda systems of philosophy could be justified, just on the same consideration. Some people attribute this power of expansion to the very nature of Laksmi. This is dismissed by saying that such a power of manifoldness should also extend to individual selves (iīvas) and that there is no reason as to why such a power should rest only with Śri.

<sup>195.</sup> *Ibid* : "mokṣaprade bhagavati mumukṣūṇām ghaṭakatayaiṣā tiṣṭhatīti sarvasammatam".

<sup>196.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>197.</sup> CŚ. 4 : "śāntānantamahāvibhūti paramam yadbrahma rūpam hareḥ mūrtam brahma tato'pi tat priyataram rūpam yadatyadbhutam yānyanyāni yathāsukham viharato rūpāmi sarvāṇi tān-yāhussvairanurūparūpavibhavair gāḍhopagūḍhāni

<sup>198.</sup> See p. 22 of the commentary on the above : "śarkarānvitadugdhanyāya"

<sup>199.</sup> See p. 32 above.

<sup>200.</sup> The Tengalai school, however, claims that it represents the pure orthodox tradition from Rāmānuja through Kūreśvara, Nanjiyar, Nambillai and others.

<sup>201.</sup> See p. 22 of the commentary.

At this stage, a new objection against the statement of Laksmi's being ever associated with Her Lord is taken up for consideration. This statement, according to the objector, is of a general character, and as such, cannot serve any specific purpose like *stuti*. It would have been a piece of *stuti* to say that Śrī always dwells upon the body of the Lord as a special distinction conferred by the Lord Himself upon Her, as He is mythologically known to have conferred such distinctions upon His devotees like Śeṣa and Garuḍa, by allowing them to serve Him in particular capacities. Thus, in the case of Laksmī too, God should be assumed to have given her the privilege of dwelling upon His body. This criticism from the Tengalai standpoint is that Śrī is also one of the general attendants on the Lord, and that, as such, She cannot be 'vibhu' like the Lord.

The objector further examines the possibilities of interpreting the term "anurūpa" 202 occuring in this verse and concludes that on no gound can Laksmi be said to compare with Her Lord. Laksmi being finite, She cannot be said to compare with the Lord by virtue of Her being an aspect of His glory, for this is common even to the other sentient and insentient entities of the universe. It cannot also be said that the nature of Laksmi corresponds with that of the Lord by reason of Her possessing beginningless omniscience like Him, because this characteristic is found even among other Eternal Beings, who are dependent upon the Lord. Thirdly, it cannot be said that the nature of Laksmi corresponds to that of Her Lord on the ground that She is all-pervasive like Him, for then, She cannot be included under any one of the two possible categories, viz., the jīva and the Lord (Īśvara): if She is a iiva. She must then be finite, and if She is the sovereign, She must needs be separate from the Lord, because the scriptures assert that the Lord is "advitīya" 203 ("one without a second") i.e, that there is none either equal or superior to Him. If She were a separate and independent sovereign like the Lord, both of them being perfectly equal in all respects, they could not form a couple. The objector points out that because of this difficulty, texts which speak of Laksmi as pervasive should be interpreted as referring merely to Her association with the innumerable manifestations (vigraha) of the Lord on earth. He concludes that because of these considerations, the statement that "Laksmi compares with the Lord" of this verse, does not carry any special significance.<sup>204</sup>

Desika replies that the statement of Laksmi's similarity with the Lord is itself specific in character, bringing out the speciality of the Goddess. A *stuti* or eulogy can be made even by attributes of a general nature, provided they have a special significance and something to distinguish. Thus, for instance, Viṣnu can be said to be praised by the Eternals and the Liberated alike, even though omniscience and such other attributes are common for them.

Dealing with all these divergent views about Śrī, Desika formulates three conceptions of Lakṣmī as held by some thinkers. These are briefly given below.

The first conception of Śrī is that held by the adherents of the Tengalai school that Lakṣmī is anu and dependent upon the Lord, but by virtue of Her expansive power, differs from the jīvas. In answer to the question as to how Lakṣmī differs from the Eternal Beings (nitya) who are also jīvas, they say that the form as well as the attributes of the Eternals are both limited in extent, whereas in the case of Lakṣmī, though Her essential form is unexcelled (niratiśaya), Her attributes are but limited in character (sātiśaya), She being dependent upon the Supreme Being. So Lakṣmī, though a jīva, can correspond with the Her Consort, through the all-pervasiveness of her original nature (svarūpavibhutva).

The second conception of Śrī set forth by Desika as held by some, is that She is a category different from the three well-known ones: Cit, Acit and Īśvara. It cannot be contended that because there is no express statement of Śrī being a further fourth category, She is to be brought under one of the three. Being

<sup>202. &</sup>quot;āhussvairanurūparūpavibhavaiḥ"

<sup>203.</sup> Vide *Chāndogya Upaniṣad* : VI-2-1 : "sadeva somya idamagra āsīt ekameva advitīyaṁ brahma".

<sup>204.</sup> Briefly, the Tengalais deny *vibhutva* to Laksmi, arguing that the *śrutis* attribute it exclusively to the Lord and that there is no logical necessity either, for positing it in regard to Laksmi.

cetana, She is different from acit; being vibhu, different from the  $j\bar{\imath}va$ ; and being dependent, different from  $\bar{I}\acute{s}vara$ . There is however, no contradiction in such a conception, and this view will adopt the poetic analogy of the gem and its lustre and that of the flower and its fragrance, etc.  $(ratnaprabh\bar{a}ny\bar{a}ya, puspaparimalany\bar{a}ya)$  to show the intimacy between the Lord and Laksmi and the way in which although She is dependent on the Lord, His glory depends upon Her.

The third view is that Śrī belongs to the category of Īśvara because of the express declaration that She is the Mistress of the Lord's two  $vibh\bar{u}tis$ : the nitya and the  $l\bar{\iota}l\bar{a}$ . The difference between Her and the Lord, on this view, is this: all beings including Lakṣmī are subservient to the Lord, whereas all beings other than the Lord are subservient to Lakṣmī. <sup>206</sup> As regards the correspondence of natures between the Lord and Lakṣmī, the characterisation of the Brahman as the sole cause of the creation, maintenance and dissolution of the universe is said to be found only with the Lord but not Lakṣmī. That is why it is said that He is the Supreme Sovereign and that there is none either equal or superior to Him. <sup>207</sup>

Desika observes that these three views do not differ much from one another and that disagreement arises when the actual name ' $j\bar{\imath}va$ ' is applied Laksmī. He further explains that in all these views, there is agreement on the point that Śrī is dependent upon the will of Viṣṇu for Her own glory. Since the Vedic texts declare that there is none superior to the Lord, <sup>208</sup> Desika remarks that all these views regarding Laksmī become justified only by establishing the over-all supremacy of Viṣṇu. So even on the view that Lakṣmī is a  $j\bar{\imath}va$ , She can still be said to become the goal of all human desire and endeavour. The correspondence

in form does not contradict the diversity of functions.<sup>209</sup> Some maintain that the Supreme Being is engaged in various world-activites purely for the pleasure of His Consort and that, as such, there could be nothing wrong in stating that Laksmī is closely associated with Him. Texts with speak of the Lord as more important than Śrī are to be understood as reflecting the common opinion that the female principle is ever subordinate and next in importance to the male.

Before concluding, Desika makes a very cryptic reference to the view held by Ranganāthamuni in his commentary upon the Śrīsūkta. The view of Ranganātha referred to by Desika, which, along with the three views of Śrī mentioned above, becomes the fourth, is that attribution of qualities like Lordship (sarvabhūteśvaratva) to both the Lord and Lakṣmī does not come into the sphere of contradiction at all, because these qualities can exist in them by their mutual consent. 210 Desika gives expression to a further fifth view on Śrī, which, on the authority of Nārāyaṇamuni, the author of the Puruṣakāramīmāmsā, as we shall presently see, is what actually Desika himself subscribes to. 211 Śrī is as pervasive as the Lord. She yet becomes subordinate to Him. This subordination is voluntary but not obligatory, because it takes place by the free will, either of Śrī, or of Her Consort.

In conclusion, Deśika says that Lakṣmī in this hymn of Yāmuna has been shown as corresponding to the Lord in terms of Lordship (svāmitva), easy accessibility (saulabhya), bestowership of mokṣa (phaladatva) and Herself being the goal of all human endeavour (phalatva).<sup>212</sup>

<sup>205.</sup> Cf. p. 23 of the commentary: "cetanatvät acidanyatvam; vibhutvājjī vānyatvam; pāratantryādī svarānyatvam ca".

<sup>206.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 23 : "sarvaśesitvädikam bhagavataḥ ; asyāstu taditarasarvaśesitvādikamiti".

<sup>207.</sup> Ibid: "sarveśvaratvam samādhikadaridratvam ca".

<sup>208.</sup> Taittirīya Āraņyaka X. 1. 2 : "na tasyeśe kaścana".

<sup>209.</sup> Commentary p. 24: "ākārasāmye'pi kvacid vyāpāro bhidyate". 210. See p. 24 of the commentary : "atra sarvabhūtesvaratvādi-

vacanasāmyāt asyā guṇabhāva ubhayecchāprayukta iti kecidāhuḥ", etc. Cf. Ranganātha's commentary on the Śrīsūkta, p. 48: "evam sarvabhūteśvaratva", etc.

<sup>211.</sup> We shall presently examine the Purusakāramīmāmsā.

<sup>212.</sup> The ānurūpya or correspondence thus expounded is not acceptable to the Tengali school save in respect of saulabhya. Periyavāccānpillai in his commentary refers to ānurūpya only in the vigrahas or forms of Lakshi during the incarnations of the Lord.

The influence of the Catuśślokī was so pronounced upon the later writers that following it as a model, there arose more detailed statements in the form of stotras about the personality and position of Lakṣmī, the chief among them being the passage at the beginning of the Śaranāgatigadya referring to Śrī, of Rāmānuja, the Śrīstava of Śrīvatsänkamiśra, referred to in Tamil as "Kūrattāzhvān", the Śrīgunaratnakośa of Parāśarabhatta, his son, and the Śrīstuti of Venkatanātha.

Rāmānuja describes Śrī as the Mother of the Universe and as ever abiding by the Supreme Being, Nārāyaṇa. 213 The greatness of Śrī is unbounded like that of the Lord. 214 Rāmānuja here stresses the importance of surrender to Lakṣmī (prapatti), which may be taken as the first specific statement of a Śrīvaiṣnava teacher regarding prapatti to Śrī, forming the basis of more detailed statements on the point by later writers. 215

Śrīvatsānka, his disciple, in a eulogium of eleven verses, describes Śrī as stimulating and guiding the Supreme Being, Viṣnu in His creative and other activities regarding the universe. <sup>216</sup> She is the Universal Mother, full of affection for the beings, <sup>217</sup> and it is Her grace that forms the source of all-round prosperity for those beings. <sup>218</sup> Her glory is again conceived to be incomprehensible even by the Omniscient Lord. <sup>219</sup> The faculty of learning is but the result of Her favour. <sup>220</sup> She is also said to bring about activity and beauty to the creation by Her mere will. <sup>221</sup>

The  $\acute{S}r\~igunaratnakośa$ , a work in sixty-one verses by Parāśarabhaṭṭa, Śr\~ivatsānka's son is, as the very title indicates, devoted to an elaborate and detailed exposition of the nature and qualities of Śr $\~i$ .

The author explains the glory of Laksmi at length, called the Mother of the Universe. 222 Here again, as in the previous work. 223 the Supreme Person Visnu is said to derive His impetus in creating the world, etc., from His Consort, Laksmi. 224 The grace of Laksmi yields all-sided properity for the creation. 225 In fact, the entire cosmic activity of the Lord in the form of creation. sustenance and dissolution, is Her own display.<sup>226</sup> By reason of Her intimate association with the Lord, 227 the author delcares that without Her, the Lord could not attain his own glory. 228 The concept of Motherhood which applies to the dynamic aspect of the Supreme Person, brings out all the other ideas flowing from it, the chief among them being benevolence, forgiveness, compassion (grace) and magnanimity.<sup>229</sup> Mediation of the Mother Śri is necessary for the devotees, of whom the Father, Visnu, is a stern judge. This idea has been effectively brought out in a verse, where Śri is depicted as pleading with the Lord for His mercy on behalf of humanity, on the grond that there is none in the creation free from faults. 230 The author ultimately emphasises the importance of saranagati or utter surrender to Śrī.231 and calls Her in that spirit of resignation, the Mother, Father and all-in-all of all the beings. 232

<sup>213.</sup> ŚG: "akhilajaganmātaram, asmanmātaram"

<sup>914</sup> Ibid

<sup>&</sup>quot;bhagvannārāyaṇābhimatānurūpa....anavadhikātiśayāsankhyeya...." etc.

Cf. VS, p. 158 : ".....aiśvaryaśilādyanavadhikamahimamahiṣi" etc.

 $<sup>215.\ \</sup>dot{S}G:$  "asmanmātaram asaranyasaranyām ananyasaranah saranamaham prapadye"

<sup>216.</sup> Śrīstava: śl. 1: "yasyā vīkşya mukham tadingitaparādhīno vidhatte' "khilam".

<sup>217.</sup> Ibid, śl. 2: "samastalokajananīm"

<sup>218.</sup> Vide Śristava, śls. 6 and 7.

<sup>219.</sup> Ibid: śl. 8. Cf. also CŚ. 2; "yasyāste mahimānam."

<sup>220.</sup> Śrīstava, śl. 9.

<sup>221.</sup> Ibid, śl. 10.

<sup>222.</sup> Vide Śrīgunaratnakośa, śl. 14: "asmajjanani"; śl. 28: "mātah": śls. 51-52: "janani", etc.

<sup>223.</sup> Ibid, śl. 1.

<sup>224.</sup> See note 216 above.

<sup>225.</sup> Cf. Śrīguņaratnakośa, śls. 15 to 18.

<sup>226.</sup> Ib. sls. 19,20,54

<sup>227.</sup> Ib. śls. 55

<sup>228.</sup> Ib. sls. 9,28,29,31

<sup>229.</sup> Ib. sls. 50-53; 57-58

<sup>230.</sup> Ibid,  $\pm 1.52$ , which is worth quoting in full:

<sup>&</sup>quot;piteva tvatpreyān janani paripūrņāgasi jane

hitasrotovrttyä bhavati ca kadacit kalusadhih

kimetat? nirdosah ka iha jagatīti tvamucitaih upāyair vismārya svajanayasi mātā tadasi nah"

<sup>231.</sup> Ibid.: śl. 60.

<sup>232.</sup>  $\mathit{Ibid}:$  śl. 61: "tvamambā pitā sarvam ca tvam" etc.

Vedānta Desika, following his predecessors, devotes his  $\acute{Sr\bar{i}stuti}$  of twenty-five stanzas, to a further delineation of the personality and position of Lakṣmī. She as the World-Mother, is full of various auspicious attributes like  $v\bar{a}tsalya^{233}$  and  $day\bar{a}^{234}$ —motherly concern or affection for the beings and compassion. Her nature is as supreme and inscrutable as that of the Lord Himself. Creation, etc. of the universe are for the pleasure of both Śrī and Her Consort, Visnu. She

With the above corpus of ideas come in doctrinal statements to the effect that the Supreme Godhead is constituted of both Viṣṇu and Lakṣmī. 237 Śrī is ever associated with Him, 238 and Her favour is the source of prosperity for the beings in this world as well as in the hereafter. 239 The concept of Śrī as associated with Viṣṇu attains its fullness, when Deśika finds in those deities the Mother as well as the Father of the entire creation. 240

We have already noticed that Desika refers to some of the views by Ranganāthamuni regarding Laksmi<sup>241</sup>. Ranganātha's commentary on the Śrīsūkta offers an authoritative exposition of the concept of Śrī according to the Visistādvaitic school of thought.

Quoting extensively from Vedic hymns like those on  $\dot{s}raddh\bar{a}$  and  $medh\bar{a}$ , Ranganātha stresses that like Her Consort Nārāyaṇa, Śrī too is the Creator of the universe, the repository

of all virtues and the source of the material and spiritual well-being of the creation. Commenting on the ninth rk of the  $\acute{Sr\bar{i}s\bar{u}kta}$ , where  $\acute{Sr\bar{i}}$  is called the sovereign of the entire creation,  $^{242}$  the author enters into a detailed discussion on the concept of  $\acute{Sr\bar{i}}$ , refuting the views held by other schools. He concludes that terms like  $\acute{sraddh\bar{a}}^{243}$  and  $\emph{visnupatn\bar{i}}$ ,  $^{244}$  including the term " $\acute{Sr\bar{i}}$ " found in the  $\acute{sruti}$ -texts unmistakably refer to Lakṣmī.  $^{245}$  The Lord and His Spouse are both engaged in saving the souls and their activity is likened to a sacrifice.  $^{246}$  Both are equally essential for the welfare of the creation. Elaborate quotations in support of this statement are made  $\acute{from}$  the  $\acute{Ahirbudhnya}$   $\acute{Samhit\bar{a}}$  and the  $\acute{Lakşm\bar{i}}$   $\acute{Tantra}$ . It is concluded that Lakṣmī is on par with the Lord in all aspects and that they both together are the Masters and Saviours of the world.

Some of the discussions are on questions like Śrī's independent and supreme character. It is asked whether Her having attributes like independence and supremacy in common with the Lord is not contradicted by śrutis which hold that the Brahman is without a second (advitiya). Ranganātha replies in the negative. Contradiction arises only when two separate Masters are posited for this world, who entertain dissimilar views and vie with each other for supremacy. Since here Śrī and Viṣnu are said to form a couple, no such contradiction arises. Some texts speak of the Lord as the sole sovereign of the world and some others, that Lakṣmī is the sovereign. Since both these texts are quite valid, they should be reconciled by declaring that the universe has but a single sovereign in the form of the couple of Lakṣmī-Nārāyaṇa, which is of the same mind and intention.

Ranganātha who holds Laksmī co-eval with the Lord, asserts that the two have complete identity even regarding creation and such other cosmic activities. The power of Laksmī extends only to the jīvas, but not to the Lord. Likewise, the power of the Lord extends only to the beings other than Śrī. So,

<sup>233.</sup> Vide Śrīstuti of Deśika: śl. 21.

<sup>234.</sup> Ibid: śl. 28.

<sup>235.</sup> *Ibid*: śls. 5, and 6.

<sup>236.</sup> Ibid:  $\pm 1.7.$ 

<sup>237.</sup> *Ibid*: śl. 5. Also *cf.* ibid: śl. 9: "bhāvārūḍhau bhagavati yuvām dampatī daivatam naḥ". Also *cf.* the opening verse of *Rahasyatrayasāra:* "vṛṇīmahe ca tatrādyau dampatī jagatām patī".

<sup>238.</sup> Cf. Śristuti of Deśika: śl. 10,

<sup>239.</sup> Ibid. sls. 14 to 22 and 24.

<sup>240.</sup> Ibid:śl. 23: "mātā devi tvamasi, bhagavān vāsudevah pitā me".

<sup>241.</sup> See pp. xxxiv, xxxviii and xxxix of the Śrīsūkta, with the commentary of Ranganāthamuni, edited with Introduction and Translation by A. Śrīnivāsa Rāghavan of Pudukkottai. There has been however some controversy as to whether the author of the commentary was Nanjiyar or Nārāyaṇamuni or some later writer.

<sup>242.</sup> Cf. Śrīsūkta, ṛk-9: "Īśvarīm sarvabhūtānām'.

<sup>243.</sup> Yajur. Aşta: II praśna: 8 anu: 64-66: "śradhayāgnissamidhyate".

<sup>244.</sup> Yajus. Samhitā: IV-4-12.

<sup>245.</sup> Commentary on the Śrīsūkta, p. 45.

<sup>246.</sup> Ibid: p. 59.

the glories of both of them are not impaired, though they are, for this reason, inscrutable. Śloka 2 of Yāmuna's Catuśślokī and śloka 12 of the Stotraratna are cited as authorities in this connection. <sup>247</sup> Though Lakṣmī and Viṣṇu are both independent of each other regarding their status, one is still subordinate to the other, and this is only voluntary but not obligatory. <sup>248</sup>

The text of the *Taittirīya* "na tasyeśe kaścana,<sup>249</sup> is explained in conformity with the concept of Śrī sketched above. Some explain this to mean that as the Lord has none superior to Him, Laksmī should only be subordinate to Him. Ranganātha rejects this interpretation and states that the text in question negates the possibility of any person being equal or superior to the Lord for the very reason that he is endowed with such a Consort as Laksmī.<sup>250</sup>

Reference is then made to a passage attributed to the  $Kathaśruti^{251}$  to explain the relation of the  $j\bar{\imath}vas$  being subservient to Śrī and Viṣṇu, the Masters of the universe. <sup>252</sup>

All the corpus of ideas about Lakṣmī expressed so far in the earlier works of the ācāryas became a literature by itself, and there appeared separate treatises on the concept of Lakṣmī, like the one we notice now, viz., the *Puruṣakāramīmāmsā*. 253 As the very name implies, this work discusses and determines the

position of Laksmī as the Mediator, technically called the purusakāra, between God and man, in the light of earlier works. The author, Nārāyaṇamuni, 254 quotes very often the views expressed by Desika regarding the position of Laksmī in his compositions like the commentaries on the Catusślokī and the Śaraṇagātigadya, the Tattvatīkā, the Tātparyacandrikā, and Nyāyasiddhāñjana, the Nikṣeparakṣā, the Paramatabhanga and the Rahasyatrayasāra. In addition to these, references are also made to works like the Brahmasūtra, the Śrībhāṣya, the Prapaṇapārijāta, and Nyāyakulisa, the Culuka, the Rahasyaratnāvali and the Śrīvacanabhūṣaṇa of Pillai Lokācārya. The author also quotes from the stotras on Śrī made by Śrīvatsankamiśra, Parāśarabhaṭṭa and Desika.

The author, in this work, undertakes to discuss the point whether Laksmī, like Visnu could be the Mistress of the universe or not. $^{256}$ 

The cosmic functions of the Lord like creation, maintenance, dissolution and emancipation are intended to please His Consort Śrī, who is the Mother of the entire universe. The śruti-texts and the Brahmasūtra, according to the author, describe Viṣnu as the prime cause of the creation and as the direct bestower of Mokṣa and also declare that the act of surrender (prapatti) to Him is the means of release. There are texts which speak of Lakṣmī on par with the Lord in all respects. On the authority of these texts, some say that Śrī, like the Lord, forms

Other works of this type are the Śrītattvasiddhānjana of Vedānta Rāmānuja, which is published, and the Laksmypupāyatvadīpa of Venkatārya, an unpublished work on palm-leaves in Grantha script, available in the above library under D. No. 5358. Also see M. Narasimhachary, "Definitions of the term Purusakāra", The Journal of Oriental Research, Madras, 1992. pp. 174-178

254. Vide the concluding stanza of the Purusa. M. folio 6b:

"nārāyaņena muninā śrīvatsānkavipaścitā saisā purusakārasya mīmāmsā nirmitā mitā"

255. *Puruṣa. M.* : folio la : "patnyāḥ pativadīśatvam asti neti nirūpyate".

256. Ibid. the opening stanza:

"svatantrasvecchayā srstisthitisamhāramokṣaṇaiḥ yatsamakṣam krīḍatīśaḥ tām bhaje lokamāṭaram"

257. *Ibid*: "śrīpatir jagato hetuh prapattavyo mumukṣubhiḥ sākṣānmokṣapradaśceti śrutisūtrādiṣu sthitam".

<sup>247.</sup> *Ibid: p. 47 (Cf. CS.* 2: "yasyāste", and *SR.* 12: "svābhāvikānavadhika." etc.).

<sup>248.</sup> *Ibid*: p. 51: "svatantrayorapi tayoranyonyecchayā patipatnībhāva iti", etc:

<sup>249.</sup> Taittirīya Āranyaka: X. 1: 2.

<sup>250.</sup> SS. p. 51 : "evamvidhapatnyādivisistatvena sadršah kaścidanyo nāsti".

<sup>251</sup> *Ibid.* p. 59: "akāreņocyate viṣṇuh....." etc. See note 174 above. 252 *Ibid.* p. 52: "ataḥ dampatyossarvabhūteśvaratvādivacanasāmyam siddham", and also p. 60.

<sup>253.</sup> This is an unpublished palm-leaf manuscript in Grantha characters, deposited in the Govt. Oriental Mss. Library, Madras, under R. No. 606. It is a very short work in six leaves. It has also a very large commentary called "Manidīpikā" by Śrīśaileśa, which is also in Grantha script and on palm-leaves, under R. No. 3147, deposited in the above library. This work, along with its commentary has recently formed the subject of a Doctoral Thesis prepared under the guidance of the present writer and has been awarded the degree (University of Madras, 1993).

the cause of the creation, the direct bestower of emancipation, and that prapatti to Her is the means thereof. 258 Now it has been suggested that Desika subscribed to this latter view. But Nārāyanamuni, after examining Desika's compositions like the commentaries on the Catusslokī, the Saranāgatigadya, the Nyāyasiddhānjana, etc., declares that according to Desika, Visnu alone is the prime cause of the universe and that He is to be resorted to for mokṣa. He, along with His Consort, becomes the goal as well as the saviour of humanity. 259

The question whether Śrī could become the prime cause of creation is discussed at length and the conclusion arrived at is that nowhere is Śrī stated to be so. The *Upaniṣadic* text, "tadaikṣata", 260 which presents the picture of the *Brahman* in His creative aspect, does not refer to Śrī. She is not known to be immanent in all the beings, like the Lord. Her function as a Mediator (puruṣakāra) starts only at the stage of prapatti by the beings. The qualities that characterise a mediator, viz., affection and absence of cruelty or bias, however, are present in Her, as some of Her epithets like "niravadyā" would indicate. 261 Śrī cannot become the cause of the world because She, like the jīva, is subordinate to and dependent upon the Lord. She has many characteristics in common with the individual souls. 262 The Brahman, who is characterised by supremacy, independence,

pervasiveness and such other features and who is also the Consort of Laksmī, could alone be the source of the creation. Some argue that since the attributes of the Brahman like 'satyam', 'jñānam' and 'anantam' mentioned in the Upaniṣads are traced in Laksmī, the term "Brahman" should also refer to Her. But this is a wrong conclusion, says Nārāyaṇamuni. The Brahman, on the authority of many texts, is also known to be unsurpassed in perfection by His form as well as attributes. Though Śrī is pervasive and eternal, being the Mistress of the Creation, She is but limited when compared to the Supreme, by Her functions as well as qualities. But yet She compares with the Lord because of Her control over the two vibhūtis. 268

The author refers to Desika's interpretation of the term 'svadhā' of the Rgvedic hymn 'ānīdavātaṁ"<sup>269</sup> in the course of his commentary on the Catuśślokī and states that here too, Śrī is not said, even from the opposite point of view, to form the prime source of creation. In his Nyāyasiddhānjana, Desika says that though Laksmī shares the attributes of the Eternal Beings like

<sup>258.</sup> *Ibid*: "kāraṇam jagato lakṣmīḥ prapattavyā śaraṇyavat sākṣānmokṣapradātrī ca patisāmyāgamādibhiḥ trayyantadeśikasyāyam siddhānta iti kecana".

<sup>259.</sup> Vide *Puruṣa. M*: folio la:
 "śriśa eva jagaddhetuh prapattavyaśca muktaye rakṣakaśca śriyā sārdham prāpyaśceti vipaścitah".

<sup>260.</sup> Cf. Chāndogya Upaniṣad VI. 2. 3 : "tadaikṣata bahu syām" etc.

<sup>261.</sup>  $\pm G$ ., the opening part : "niravadyām devadevadivyamahişīm", etc.

 <sup>262.</sup> Puruşa. M. folio 2a : "lakşmyām neśvaralakşmāsti vidyate jīvalakşaṇam"; and

<sup>&</sup>quot;ādheyatvavidheyatvaseşatvāņutvasamyutam cetanatvamahantvam vā jīvalakşmāṣṭadhoditam".

<sup>263.</sup> *Cf. Puruşa*. M. folio 2a :

"kāraṇatvādilakṣmāṇi brahmatvaśrī patitvavat
patimātrāśrayāṇīti lakṣaṇābhijñanirṇayaḥ".

Also ibid:2b: "hetutvādi brahmalaksma patimātrasya nobhayoh".

<sup>264.</sup> Taittirīya Upanişad II.1.1: "satyam jñānamanantam brahma".

<sup>265.</sup> Vide *Puruṣa. M.* folio 2a :
 "satyajñānādivākyoktabrahmalakṣaṇayogataḥ
 śrīrapi brahmaśabdārtha iti kecinna sādhu tat"

<sup>266.</sup> *Ibid* : folio 2b :
 "svarūpeņānavadhikātišayam sat guņairapi
 tadanantam brahma vedyam tat prāpyam ceti bhāṣaṇāt"

<sup>267.</sup> *Ibid* : "vibhvī nityā ca sā 'thāpi paricchinnaiva vastutah vyāpārataśca guṇato nyūnatvam patyapekṣayā"

<sup>268.</sup> Ibid: "vibhūtidvayaśeṣitvamātreņeśvaratā samā"

<sup>269.</sup> Cf. Rgveda X. 11. 129; Purușa. M. folio 2b and p. 18 of Deśika's commentary on CŚ.

"knowledge" and "bliss", She is yet on par with the Lord, being the Mother of those beings, of whom the Lord is the Father.<sup>270</sup>

Referring again to Desika's commentary on the *Catusślokī*, the author states that the personalities of the Lord and Śrī are distinct and that texts which speak of their unity of form should be understood metaphorically.<sup>271</sup> Reference is also made to the method of interpreting terms like 'sattā' and 'ahantā', found in some texts, in conformity with the distinction of form subsisting between the Lord and His spouse.<sup>272</sup>

Regarding the act of surrender to Śrī, Nārāyaṇamuni, quoting Deśika, states that She, like Her consort, is essential for mokṣa. The desire to confer mokṣa upon the beings however, may be attributed either to the Supreme Person or to both Him and His Consort. Lakṣmī bestows all rewards on the devotees either directly or through the Lord. The is the direct means of the first three human ends, viz., dharma, artha and kāma. But regarding the fourth, viz., mokṣa, She effects it through the Lord. Nārāyaṇamuni observes that there is no doubt regarding Lakṣmī's being the Mediator (puruṣakāra) and the eternal associate of the Lord. An additional point introduced is that one

should also surrender to Śrī. 276 The author says that a proper understanding of the Nvāvasiddhāñiana (of Deśika) would reveal that since Visnu is the inner controller of all other deities like Aditi, Bhūmi and even Śrī, He alone could be the cause of the universe. He, along with His Consort, forms the goal of all human endeavour. 277 Śrī is associated with Visnu as an attribute is with its substrate. The Lord, who first does not have any active desire to save the jīvas, comes to have it only by the association with Śri. 278 The author points out that the Lord, in association with Śrī alone, is characterised by the texts as the means  $(up\bar{a}ya)$ as well as the goal (upeya).279 It is observed that recourse to Śrī as Mediator is quite in conformity with the Vedic and the smrtideclarations, tradition, our wordly experience and also the sayings of the teachers.280 In as much as the Lord is said to control or favour the beings only at the instance of Śrī and that. too, for Her pleasure, it is to be deduced that she is quite distinct from and superior to the ordinary human and such other beings.<sup>281</sup> Lordship posited with Śri does not contradict that of Visnu. The relation that subsists between them is the same as that between the Sun and his radiance, one adding to the glory of the other.<sup>282</sup> These views are also supported by quotations from the stutis on Śrī by Śrīvatsānkamiśra. Paräśarabhatta and Deśika.

<sup>270.</sup> Purușa. M. folio 3a:

<sup>&</sup>quot;muktavat paramam sāmyam jñānānandādibhir guņaih pitrtvādyaissāmyamātram muktavyāvṛttamīritam tatroktam janakatvam hi pitrtvam šrītadīsayoh"

<sup>271.</sup> Ibid: folio 3b.

<sup>272.</sup> Ibid.

 $<sup>273.\</sup> Ibid$ : folio 4b : "sāmyapradānasaṅkalpastvī śasyaivāthavobhayoḥ"

<sup>274.</sup> Ibid: "sāksāt paramparāto vā laksmīssarvaphalapradā"

<sup>275.</sup> Ibid. folio 4b:

<sup>&</sup>quot;İsadvārā bandhahāneḥ, dharmādessādhanam svayam"

<sup>276.</sup> *Ibid*: "śripatyaikaprapannatvam mumuksoh pratyapādi ca", and "visesanatayā nyāsavisayatvamihādhikam"

<sup>277.</sup> *Ibid* : folio 5a : "śriśastasmāt sarvahetussevyassarvamumukşubhih | rakṣakaśca śriyā sārdham prāpyaśceti satām matam"

<sup>278.</sup> *Ibid*: folio 5b: "viśinaṣṭi tadāpi śrīḥ guṇavigrahavatprabhum bharasvī kārarahitam rakṣāsankalpavarjitam guṇādikamiheṣṭam hi śaranyasya viśeṣaṇam"

<sup>279.</sup> *Ibid* : "vibhuh patnyā guṇādyaiśca viśiṣṭo viṣayotra naḥ svāmyupāya upeyaśca svarūpādisamarpaṇe"

<sup>280.</sup> *Ibid*: folios 5b-6a:

<sup>&</sup>quot;arthasvabhāvānuşthānalokadṛṣṭigurūktibhih

śrutyā smṛtyā ca saṁsiddhaṁ ghaṭakārthāvalaṁbanam"

<sup>281.</sup> *Ibid*: folio 6a:

<sup>&</sup>quot;yadicchayaiva yatprītyai śāsanam nigrahādi ca tatra nigrāhyajātīyavisajātīyatāmatiḥ"

<sup>282.</sup> *Ibid.*: "eketarasamastānām svanisthaikārthatāsthitaiḥ dvisthe tadanyaśesitve dvairājyādibhayotthitam prabhādhikyaprakārena mitho 'tiśayadāyinoḥ".

Nārāyaṇamuni also briefly enumerates the five concepts of Śrī detailed by Deśika at the end of his commentary on the Catuśślokī. The last of these views, which holds that Śrī is pervasive and subordinate to the Lord only by the free will of Her own Self or of Her Consort and that this subordination is only voluntary but not obligatory, is what actually Deśika subscribes to, says Nārāyaṇamuni. This conclusion is arrived at by him on the ground that it is the general practice of writers to state their own views at the end. Here, too, Deśika has arranged the concepts of Śrī in an increasing order of importance, stating his own opinion at the end.<sup>283</sup>

In fine, Nārāyanamuni, in a spirit of synthesis which characterises all noble thinkers, tries to reconcile the differences that became more prominent and particular between the Tengali and the Vedagalai schools of Śrīvaisnavism, represented by Pillai Lokācārva and Vedānta Desika respectively. Nārāyanamuni says that apparent contradictions are bound to occur in authoritative works like the Śrīvacanabhūsana and the Rahasyatrayasāra. But they are to be reconciled by taking their ultimate intention into consideration. Similarly, there is apparent contradiction regarding the supreme importance of prapatti between Rāmānuja's Śaranāgatigadya and his commentary on the Caramaśloka of the Bhagavadgītā. Nārāyaņamuni suggests that all such contradictions are only apparent and that they do no longer exist when the intention or tatparya of those texts is taken into consideration, just as the two Mīmāmsā Śāstras, inspite of their broad disagreement, are said to form a single unitary whole, 'ekaśāstra', from the viewpoint of their ultimate intention.<sup>284</sup>

We have seen how the concept of Śakti as eternally associated with Supreme Being, gradually and naturally transformed itself into the Śrīvaisnava *theism* which equates the

supreme Godhead with the Dual Divinity of Laksmi-Nārāvana. 285 Such a transition is the result of the redemptive necessity that naturally follows the divine nature of compassion (dayā). 286 This Dual Divinity characterises the Fatherhood and Motherhood of the Lord, ensuring the hope of universal salvation.<sup>287</sup> Īśvara symbolizes justice and Laksmi, the most exalted quality of His. viz., dayā or mercy. She also symbolizes the love of God for man and vice versa. 288 By this concept of Dual Divinity, Visnu is enabled to become the material and the efficient causes of the universe, since Laksmi, His Consort, has already been viewed in a similar manner.<sup>289</sup> These two forms of the Supreme Godhead are philosophically inseparable, though functionally distinguishable. 290 The Lord, who is a stern judge and ruler of the world with His strict and unexceptional law of karman, is now dominated by the love of Śri.291 The Lord rules by law and Laksmi by love, and the world can hope for salvation in the perfect equilibrium of these two factors. 292 Śrī is the svāminī and the purusakāra (mediator) of man. She wins the Lord by Her natural sweetness and beauty as  $day\bar{a}$ , and converts the sinner by love as his mother and thus mediates between them. 293 Etymologically, too, the term. 'Śrī' is said to effect a successful compromise between them by changing the Lord into a saviour or saranva by timely intercession and necessary mediation.294

<sup>283.</sup> *Ibid*: 6b: "pūrvapūrvopamardena pakṣāṇāmupavarṇanāt"; "yatra pūrvopamardena nānāpakṣāḥ prakīrtitāḥ tatra sarvatra caramah saṅgrāhya iti niścayah"

<sup>284.</sup> Purusa M. folio 6b.

<sup>285.</sup> Vide PV. p. 165

<sup>286.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>287.</sup> Ibid. p. 386.

<sup>288.</sup> LR. p. 247.

<sup>289.</sup> IP. II. p. 689.

<sup>290.</sup> Cf. Desika's commentary on the CS. p. 24 : "ākārasāmye'pi kvacit vyāpāro bhidyate". Cf. PV. p. 165.

<sup>291.</sup> PV. p. 166.

<sup>292.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>293.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 387. *Cf. Śrīvacanabhūṣaṇa* (I.13): "cetananai arulāle tiruttum," Īśvaranai azhagāle tiruttum" quoted in PV on page no. 167.

<sup>294.</sup> PV. p. 387.

## (b) The Stotraratna

The Stotraratna popularly called the Ālavandārstotra, is a hymn on the Lord in sixty-five stanzas. Although a hymn of religious and devotional importance, this work abounds in many philosphical statements. It may be noted that there are also similar works in the early Jaina, Advaita, and Kāśmīr Śaiva schools of thought, which clothe theological and philosophical ideas in poetic utterances. The Stotraratna has the doctrine of surrender (prapatti) as its main theme. All the verses of this hymn powerfully bring out the agony of the human soul trying to reach the plane of divine existence, and we can also find the author here at his best as a poet. It has been recorded traditionally that Rāmānuja got attracted to Yāmuna after listening to this hymn, especially the verse "svābhāvika..."

As already noticed,  $^{296}$  the Stotraratna forms the sequel of the  $Catusslok\bar{\imath}$ . In the  $Catusslok\bar{\imath}$  Laksmi has been described as the supreme, and this only adds to the glory of Visnu, Her Consort,  $^{297}$  to the establishment of which the present work is devoted.

There is a Tamil commentary by Periyavāccān Pillai as well as a Sanskrit one by Vedānta Desika. This hymn, according to Desika, not only brings out the essential teaching of the Vedāntas, viz., that Lord Nārāyana Himself is the means (upāya), the end (sādhya), and the goal (prāpya) of all human endeavour, 298 but also impiles the significance of the Dvayamantra (the Twin-mantra) held in high esteem by the Śrīvaiṣnavas. He, accordingly makes a topic-wise analysis of the whole hymn.

295. SR. s´l. 11. :

"svābhāvikānavadhikātišayešitṛtvam nārāyaṇa! tvayi na mṛṣyati vaidikaḥ kaḥ? brahmā śivaśśatamakhaḥ paramasvarāḍityete'pi yasya mahimārṇavavipruṣaste"

Vide PA ch. IX, p. 22, for the above account.

296. See p. 18 ante.

297. Cf. SR. śl. 12: "kaśśriśśriyah"; and śl. 45: "śriyaśśriyam".

298. Vide Deśika's commentary on CŚ. p. 24: "sādhyam

prāpyamupāyam ca stotre samdarśayiṣyati"

299. The Dvaya-mantra is : "śrīmannārāyaṇacaraṇau śaraṇam prapadye, śrīmate narāyaṇāya namaḥ".

In verses 1 to 5, the author salutes those imparted to him spiritual knowledge and in the next verse (6) he briefly refers to the Lord who is the means as well as the goal of all humanity and also undertakes to compose the *stotra*. In the succeeding verse (7), he commences the *stotra* and brings out succinctly the supremacy of Viṣnu. In the next two verses (8,9) he justifies his daring effort and says that this effort alone is fit for him. Verses 10 to 21 expatiate upon the supremacy (*paratva*) as well as easy accessibility (*saulabhya*) of the Lord before whom the poet bows down in all humility. The Lord is thus proved to be the *saranya*—the saviour of humanity.

In the next stanza (22), Yāmuna gives expression to his single and whole-hearted Surrender (śaranāgati) to the Lord which incidentally brings out the meaning of the first part of the Dvaya. In verses 23 to 27, he elaborates the above idea and in the next two stanzas (28-29), he states that even simple acts of service to the Lord like offering salutations, are highly efficacious. In stanzas 30 to 46, he clarifies the significance of the two terms of the Dvaya-formula in the Dative Case, viz., 'śrīmate' and 'nārāyanāya', and also hints at the significance of the term 'namah' occurring in the same mantra. In the succeeding verse (47), the author suggests that what he desires is the highest human end, and this he does through utter self-abnegation. In verses 48 to 51, he declares that one who takes to the path of Surrender will get all the obstacles in his way cleared through divine mercy  $(day\bar{a})$ , the most conspicuous of all the qualities of the Lord. In the next two verses, the author makes the declaration of his being an eternal and unconditioned servant of God and desires to have that servitude alone as his end.

In stanzas 54 to 57, Yāmuna prays to God to bestow upon him what is good in this world and remove all that is evil, he being solely intent on serving Him. In the next verse (58), he emphasises what has already been said in verses 47 to 51. The next stanza expresses the firm conviction that the Lord Himself would fulfil the undertaking of a one-pointed devotee. In the following stanza (60), the author refers to the characteristics of the Supreme on one hand and to those of his own self on the

In the succeeding verse (63), the author gives expression to his conviction that the Lord would forgive all his faults, taking into consideration the merit acquired by him, even in his previous births, if it be not found in the present. In the next verse again, he pleads for the Lord's mercy. In the final sloka, the author says that the most important consideration which may persuade the Lord to protect him is that he is the grandson of Nāthamuni and comes of a proper lineage of teachers devoted to the Lord.

Desika observes that the teaching regarding the efficacy of Surrender (saranāgati or prapatti) in achieving salvation conveyed by this hymn has also been exemplified by the very life of its author, Yāmuna.

The following are the theological and doctrinal ideas which Yāmuna brings out in this hymn:

The supremacy and Lordship of Viṣnu are natural and unexcelled, the purport of all the Vedic texts<sup>300</sup> and inscrutable even to the higher orders of divine beings like Brahmā and Śiva.<sup>301</sup> Viṣnu becomes the prime cause of creation, maintenance, destruction, etc., of the universe, by His more will (sankalpa).<sup>302</sup> He is the inner controller (niyantṛ), the master (svāmin) and at the same time, the friend (suhṛt) of all beings, full of concern for them (vatsalatva).<sup>303</sup> The other gods mentioned in the Nārāyaṇa Anuvāka, like Brahmā, Śiva and Indra, and even the Liberated Beings, are mere drops of the ocean-like glory of Viṣnu.<sup>304</sup> The

distinction of Viṣnu over other deities like Śiva and Brahmā lies in His being the source of even Lakṣmī's glory as Her Beloved Consort, His being the promoter of the quality of sattva (serenity) which helps achieve liberation and His being of the same characteristics as possessing the lotus-eyes specially mentioned in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (pundarīkanayana). The is the Highest Person, a fragment of whose unbounded splendour gets manifested as the wonderful cosmos of sentient and insentient entities. The Purānic episodes are also put forth as evidence to support Viṣnu's supremacy over the rest of the gods by emphasising that He alone protected and blessed them on many an occasion. The entire universe rests in Him and emerges out of Him. He pervades it by an infinitesimal part of His aspect and projects and dissolves it playfully with the least exertion which go to prove His sovereignty beyond all doubt.

The supremacy of Nārāyana cannot be comprehended by the ignorant, who, evidently in the terminology of the *Bhagavadgītā*, are called 'āsura' or demoniac, with distorted visions. <sup>308</sup> This sovereignty of the Lord is clear from a number of factors—His unbounded compassion, beatific form and benevolent activities, borne out by genuine sāttvic texts<sup>309</sup> and teachings

<sup>300.</sup> SR.: śl. 6 and 11a.

<sup>301.</sup> Ibid: śl. 7.

<sup>302.</sup> *Ibid*: śl. 10a, b: "nävekṣase yadi tato bhuvanānyamūni

<sup>&</sup>quot;nāvekṣase yadī tato bhuvananyamum nālam prabho bhavitumeva kutaḥ pravṛttiḥ?

<sup>303.</sup> *Ibid*: śl. 10c, d:

"evam nisargasuhṛdi tvayi sarvajantoḥ
svāmin! na citramidamāśritavatsalatvam"

<sup>304.</sup> *Ibid*: śl. 11c, d:
 "brahmā śivaśśatamakhaḥ paramasvarāḍityete'pi yasya mahimārṇavavipruṣaste"

<sup>305.</sup> Vide *Chāndogya*: I. 6. 8: "tasya yathā kapyāsam purnḍarīkamevamakṣiṇī". Cf. SR. śl. 12b: "kaḥ puṇḍarīkanayanaḥ". The point which Yāmuna has in mind is that no other deity is called "puṇḍarīkanayana".

<sup>306.</sup> Cf. SR. sl. 12c, d:

<sup>&</sup>quot;kasyāyutāyutaśataikakalāmśakāmśe viśvam vicitracidacitpravibhāgavṛttam"

<sup>307.</sup> Vide SR: sls. 13 and 14.

<sup>308.</sup> Ibid: śl. 15d: "naivāsuraprakṛtayaḥ prabhavanti boddhum"

Cf. Bhagavadgītā Ch. IX: śls. 11 and 12:

<sup>&</sup>quot;avajānanti mām mūdhā mānusīm tanumāśritam param bhāvamajānanto mama bhūtamaheśvaram moghāśā moghakarmāno moghajñānā vicetasah rākṣasīmāsurīm caiva prakṛtim mohinīm śritāḥ"

Cf. Ch. XVI sls. 18-20

<sup>309.</sup> SR. śl. 15b : ".....sāttvikatayā prabalaiśca śāstraiḥ"

For a classification of texts as *sāttvika*, *rājasa* and *tāmasa*, see Matsya Purāṇa Ch. LIII: 67-69.

of the God-minded seers. <sup>310</sup> It is only the one-pointed devotees that realise this supremacy of the Lord, even if it be hidden by Him through His own  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  or variegated Power. <sup>311</sup> His Lordship is also evident from the fact that He pervades and controls each and everything in the cosmos, the material Nature ( $pradh\bar{a}na$ ), the individual souls (purusa), the three qualities sattva (serenity), rajas (activity) and tamas (inertia), etc. <sup>312</sup>

This supremacy is at the same time, characterised by easy accessibility, as the Lord is known to have innumerable auspicious qualities like power, generosity, mercy, straightforwardness, purity, sweetness of speech and acts, and equanimity.<sup>313</sup> The creation, maintenance, dissolution and the subsequent release from transmigratory existence effected by the Lord are only for the good of humanity.<sup>314</sup> The *Vedas* and other authoritative texts incorporate His mandates.<sup>315</sup> He is beyond the purview of mind and speech,<sup>316</sup> and love for Him attains its acme when one surrenders at Hit feet with unswerving conviction and self-abnegation.<sup>317</sup> The helpless human soul can only be saved by the overwhelming mercy of the Almighty.<sup>318</sup> The Lord the Saviour

Note the words in italics. Also cf. śl. 23. 318. Vide śls. 23-27.

and the individual soul the saved, are mutually complementary, the latter being in need of the Lord's grace and also necessary for bringing into display, or for fulfilling His qualities of grace and affection.<sup>319</sup>

Śrī abides by Him permanently. Her form, nature and activities are all in conformity with those of Her Spouse, by which She pleases Him every moment. 320 She is the source of the prosperity of the entire creation. 321 The Highest Abode of the Divine Couple, Vaikuntha, consists of the Eternal Beings (nitya), chief of whom are Ananta, Garuda and Visvaksena, serving the Lord and His consort in different capacities, out of pure love and one-pointed devotion. 322 The glorious qualities of the Lord all the more intensify the burning love of the devotee who pays his obeisance and prays to the Lord, to bless him with the pleasure of permanent and unconditional survitude, which makes him an ekāntin—a one-pointed devotee. 323 The compassionate Lord could overlook the shortcomings of the helpless devotee and save him. 324

One should entrust oneself to the Lord without caring for other things that stand in one's way, like the physical body, qualities, worldly relations and so on.<sup>325</sup> All one has, including

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319. Ibid: śls. 24, 50 and 51.
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324. Ibid: śls. 48-49.

kāmavrttah"

The terms in italics may be noted, which bring out the srivaisnava conceptions of one pointed devotion, love and servitude to the Lord.

325. *Ibid*: śls. 52, 53 and 57. Śloka 57 might be quoted: na deham na prāṇān na ca sukhamaśeṣābhilaṣitam na cātmānam nānyat kimapi tava śeṣatvavibhavāt bahirbhūtam nātha! kṣaṇamapi sahe, yātu śatadhā vināśam tat, satyam madhumathana! vijñāpanamidam"

Note the stress on sesatva to the Lord.

<sup>310.</sup> ŚR. śl. 15c: "prakhyātadaivaparamārthavidām mataiśca"

<sup>311.</sup> Ibid: śl. 16c: "māyābalena bhayatāpi nigūhyamānam"

<sup>312.</sup> Ibid: śl. 17c, d:

<sup>&</sup>quot;guṇāḥ pradhānam puruṣah param padam parātparam brahma ca te vibhūtayaḥ"

<sup>313.</sup> *Ibid* : śl. 18 :

<sup>&</sup>quot;vasī vadānyo guņavān rjussuciḥ mṛdur dayāļur madhurassthirassamaḥ kṛtī kṛtajñastvamasi svabhāvataḥ samastakalyāṇaguṇāmṛtodadhiḥ"

<sup>314.</sup> Ibid: śl. 20.

<sup>315.</sup> *Ibid*: śl. 20c, d: bhavanti līlā vidhyaśca vaidikāḥ tvadīyagambhīramano 'nusāriṇah''

<sup>316.</sup> Ibid : śl. 21a : "namo namo vānmanasātibhūmaye"

<sup>317.</sup> *Ibid*: śl. 22: "na dharmaniṣṭho 'smi na cātmavedī na bhaktimān tvaccaraṇāravinde akiñcano 'nanyagatiśśaraṇya! tvātpādamūlam *śaraṇam prapadye*"

<sup>320.</sup> *Ibid*: śl. 38c, d: "gunena rūpena vilāsacestitaih sadā tavaivocitayā tava śriyā"

Cf. CS Sl. 4 "Śantananta etc. see p. 43 above.

<sup>321.</sup> SR: śl. 37c: "jagat samastam yadapāngasamśrayam"

<sup>322.</sup>  $\mathit{Ibid}$ :  $\pm 1s$ . 39-45.

<sup>323.</sup> *Ibid*: śls. 46-47 d: "bhavantamevānucaran nirantaram praśāntaniśśeṣamanorathāntarah kadāhamaikāntikanityakinkarah praharṣayiṣyāmi sanāthajīvitam": "tava parijanabhāvam kāmaye

one's own self, is for the service (kainkarva) of the Lord<sup>326</sup> and the only thing for which one should pray to God is bhakti or loving devotion, which leads to one-pointed realisation of the Supreme, and unflinching servitude to Him. 327 Equally efficacious is the contact with the Lord's devotees, whose favour is to be aspired for. 328 One should also abhor the contact with the nondevotees of the Lord. 329 The noble qualities of God like mercy. friendship and love will save one from sin and misconduct, and put one in the right path. 330 For a real devotee, the Lord alone appears as the father, mother, wife, children, friends and all that one cherishes as near and dear.<sup>331</sup> The Lord will Himself take care of one who surrenders to Him.332 The fact that the Lord's compassion is unreserved, is evidently borne out by His incarnations as Rāma and Kṛṣṇa. 333 So, even a lesser degree of merit in a devotee, however sinful he might otherwise be, will invoke the Lord's mercy and save him. Even if such a fragment of merit is absent in him, the Lord will at least take into account his descent from a line of His own devotees and will thus save

326. See note 323.

327. Ibid: śl. 54: "avabodhitavāṇimām yathā

mayi nityam bhavadi yatām svayam kṛpayaivamananyabhogyatām

bhagavan! bhaktimapi prayaccha me"

328. Ibid: śls.55a,b and 56: "tava dāsyasukhaikasan ginām

bhavanesvastvapi kitajanma me";

"sakṛttvadākāravilokanāsayā tṛṇīkṛtānuttamamuktibhuktibhiḥ

mahātmabhirmāmavalokyatām naya kṣaṇe'pi te yadviraho 'tidussahah'

329.  $\mathit{Ibid}:$  śl. 55c, d: "itarāvasathesu māsma bhū

dapi me janma caturmukhātmanā"

330. Ibid: śls. 58 and 59.

Note 59d: "tvamevaivambhūtam dharanidhara, me siksaya manah"

331. Ibid:sl. 60: "pitā tvam mātā tvam dayita! tanayastvam priyasuhṛt

tvameva, tvam sarvam gururasi gatiścāsi jagatām tvadīyastvadbhrtyastava parijanastvadgatiraham

prapannaścaivam satyahamapi tavaivāsmi hi bharaḥ"
The words in italics may be noted for their specific declaration of idea of prapatti which is also sometimes called nyāsa and

the idea of *prapatti* which is also sometimes called *nyāsa* and *bharanyāsa*. This verse also stresses on loving service not only to God but also to His devotees.

332.  $Cf. \pm 1.22:$  "na dharmanistho 'smi" etc. with  $\pm 1.60$  quoted above. 333.  $Ibid: \pm 1.63$ .

him. This only emphasises the extremely compassionate character of the Lord.  $^{334}$ 

Thus, though couched in the form of a literary and devotional hymn, the *Stotraratna* brings out all the cardinal doctrines and philosophical ideas of Viśiṣṭādvaita, especially regarding *prapatti* or Surrender. It is these expressions and ideas of this pre-Rāmānuja writer that came to be stated clearly and elaborately in the works of later writers like Rāmānuja, 335 Parāśarabhatṭa and Deśika. This hymn is thus of great significance, being the nucleus of the concept of the Supreme Being and the Doctrine of Surrender to Him.

The importance of this *Stotra* is amply borne out by the fact that Periyavāccān Piḷḷai and Deśika have written commentaries upon it, bringing out all the philosophical and doctrinal ideas imbedded in it. What Yāmuna says in a poetic way, these commentators explain philosophically and formulate in an analytical way, in the terminology of their traditions. The Śrīvaiṣṇavas always cherish this hymn and accord it an important place among the authoritative doctrinal texts of their school.

Desika also codifies his interpretations in the form of mnemonic verses of  $k\bar{a}rik\bar{a}s$ . Some of the important ideas which he expatiates upon and formulates are :

<sup>334.</sup> Ibid: sls. 61 and 65.

<sup>335.</sup> The Vaikuntha Gadya of Rāmānuja is mainly based on and inspired by this work of Yāmuna and a close comparison of these two works would reveal this fact. The opening verse of the *Gadya* is itself clear evidence for this (see p. 141 of the Kāncī edn.):

<sup>&</sup>quot;yāmunāryasudhāmbhodhimavagāhya yathāmati ādāya bhaktiyogākhyam ratnam samdarsayāmyaham"

This verse reveals that Rāmānuja viewed the Stotraratna as a work bringing out the concept of Bhakti also.

Though Rāmānuja does not quote any passage from the Stotraratna in his  $Sr\bar{\imath}bh\bar{a}$ şya, Sudarsanasūri, the commentator on the  $Sr\bar{\imath}bh\bar{a}$ sya, (p. 3 of the Mysore edn. in Telugu letters) quotes a line from it:

<sup>&</sup>quot;.....jagadudbhavasthitipranāśasamsāravimocanādayah" śl. 20a, b.

The supremacy of Nārāyana is co-existent with easy accessibility. He is the Prime Cause of the universe (kārana), the Inner Controller of everything (niyantr), the natural well-wisher, (nisargasuhrt) and the Master of all beings (svāmin), with great concern for them (vatsala).<sup>336</sup>

The major discussion is on the supremacy of Visnu over other deities.

According to the Śrīvaiṣṇava theology, Viṣṇu is the Supreme Being, Brahmā, Śiva and other orders of divinity being bound by their own karman. Their glories are therefore limited in extent and impermanent in character. The liberated souls (muktas) are free from the grip of the karman and are thus superior to the rest of the divine beings. Of these muktas, it is said that they could create all things and move freely in all the dominions by their mere will (sankalpa). But this is no indication of their supremacy, since the display of their power is only limited in extent, being dependent upon God's Will (parecchā). The Brahmasūtra<sup>337</sup> clearly states that the power and glory of the liberated beings is but limited to factors other than cosmic functions like creation, maintenance and destruction.

The sovereignty of Nārāyaṇa is evident from many śruti and smṛti texts. The term 'Nārāyaṇa' occurring in verse 11 of this Stotra³³³ indicates that terms like 'sat', 'asat', 'Brahmā' and 'Hiraṇyagarbha', found in different cosmogonic texts, and the term 'mahāpuruṣa' employed in Upaniṣads like the Subāla, the Maitrāyaṇīya and the Mahopaniṣad, only point to Nārāyaṇa, the Supreme Lord. This view is quite in conformity with the Nārāyaṇa Anuvāka, which has, as its sole purport, the establishment of the sovereignty of Nārāyaṇa. The term 'Nārāyaṇa' further indicates the four topics discussed in the four sections of the Brahmasūtra, viz., that Nārāyaṇa is the ultimate

cause  $(k\bar{a}ranatva)$ , that there are no proofs contradictory to this  $(nirb\bar{a}dhatva)$ , that He is the means  $(up\bar{a}yatva)$  and that He is the goal  $(pr\bar{a}pyatva)$  of all human endeavour.<sup>339</sup>

The statement of the Nārāyana Anuvāka, "sa Brahmā sa Śivah Sendrah<sup>340</sup>" with the terms "Brahmā" "Śiva" and "Indra" in co-ordinate predication, points out that Brahmā, Śiva and others are all different aspects of one and the same Deity, Nārāyana. It also suggests that the relation between Him and these deities is the one that subsists between a soul and its body (śarīra-śarīribhāva).341 This explanation thus sets aside other views which either identify all the three gods of the Trinity-Brahmā. Visnu and Śiva—or make them all equal in status, or even hold that the Supreme Being is someone other than these three. The passage quoted above, it should be noted, mentions Siva and Brahmā, along with Indra, who is generally known as a lesser deity. Indra's another name, 'satamakha', 342 makes it clear that his status was wrought by his own karman and that it is hence not natural with him, as with Visnu. This section on Nārāvana further supplies us the clue that all texts which apparently enjoin meditation on Siva and other deities as the source of world-creation, should only be construed as enjoing that meditation on Visnu, who happens to be their inner self. 343 It is therefore proper to interpret terms like 'Hiranyagarbha', 344 'Rudra'345 and 'Indra'346 that appear in different cosmogonic

<sup>336.</sup> Vide commentary on verse 10, p. 36:

<sup>&</sup>quot;kāraņatvam niyantrtvam suhrttvam svāmitā hareh vātsalyamiti pañcaite kanthoktā iha sadgunāh"

<sup>337.</sup> Vide *Brahma Sūtra*: IV. iv. 17: "jagadvyāpāravarjam prakaraņāt, asannihitatvācca".

<sup>338.</sup> See "nārāyaņa! tvayi na mṛṣyati vaidikah kah?" [śl. 11b].

<sup>339.</sup> See commentary on śl. 11 above.

<sup>340.</sup> Vide *Mahānārāyaṇa Upaniṣad* : 11-13. *Taittirīya Āraṇyaka*: X-11-2, however, reads : "sa brahmā sa śivaḥ, sa hariḥ, sendraḥ"

<sup>341.</sup> Vide commentary on SR. śl. 11.

<sup>342.</sup> Vide SR. śl. 11c: "brahmā śivaśśatamakhah", etc.

<sup>343.</sup> Vide *Taittirīya Āraṇyaka*, X-11-1 and *Mahānārāyaṇa Upaniṣad* : 11-4: "nārāyaṇaḥ paraṁ brahma" and "ātmā nārāyaṇaḥ paraḥ".

<sup>344.</sup> Rgveda X-121-1: "hiranyagarbhassamavartatāgre"

<sup>345.</sup> Śvetāśvatara Upaniṣad III-2 : "eka eva rudrah na dvitīyāya tasthe"

<sup>346.</sup> Rgveda VI-47-18: "indro māyābhih pururūpa īyate"

passages, in their etymological sense (yoga), to mean Viṣṇu, as opposed to their conventional sense  $(r\bar{u}dhi)$ , by which they would denote particular gods bearing those designations.<sup>347</sup>

It may be objected that the term "hiranyagarbha" of the passage, "hiranyagarbhassamavartatāgre", 348 should only be taken in its conventional sense, by which it refers to the fourfaced Brahmā. 349 The reason behind such a contention is that the term "Prajāpati", 350 which is a significant designation of the creator-god, also occurs in the same passage. His other designations like "dhātṛ" 351 and "vidhātṛ" 352 also favour this opinion. 353 But this contention is contradicted by the passage "eko ha vai nārāyana āsīt na brahmā nesānah" 354 which negates the pre-cosmic existence of Brahmā along with that of Śiva (called "Īsāna"). Moreover, a proper interpretation of texts like "yamantassamudre", 355 "yadekamavyaktam" 356 "sarve nimeṣā jajñire vidyutah puruṣādadhi", 357 "sa āpah pradughe ubhe ime" 358 and "ya enam viduramṛtāste bhavanti", 359 will bring out the chief characteristics of Nārāyana, like His ocean abode, 360

His ultra-mundane existence, His hue of lightning, His being the source of this wonderful cosmic creation and His being the means of release for the entire humanity, says Desika. It may be noted that these characteristics are found only with Nārāyaṇa but not with other deities, and are enough to establish the supremacy of the former. Brahmā, conventionally denoted by the term 'prajāpati', is on the authority of many texts, known to be subordinate to and controlled by Nārāyaṇa. He is also known to be influenced by his own acts (karman), good or bad. It is, therefore, proper to take terms like 'prajāpati' and 'dhātr' etymologically, so that they denote 'Nārāyaṇa' ultimately.

Another factor that proves Nārāyaṇa's transcendent character is that He is the Consort of Lakṣmī, the goddess of beauty and plenty. The text "hrīśca te lakṣmīśca patnyau" supports this view in unmistakable terms. In the light of this, the term 'prajāpati' of the cosmogonic texts loses its conventional significance and refers only to Nārāyaṇa, through etymology. The Mahābhārata too employs the term 'prajāpati' to denote Viṣṇu. 63 It is this supremacy of Nārāyaṇa that is clearly paraphrased in the passage, "patim viśvasya ātmeśvaram". 504

Some may contend that the *Puruṣasūkta* itself could not be taken as glorifying Nārāyaṇa<sup>365</sup> on the ground that the term 'puruṣa' may denote even an ordinary human being, who is other than Nārāyaṇa. But Deśika says that the term 'puruṣa' should be here understood in the special sense of Supreme Being—parama puruṣa, who is the source of the world-creation. The fact that the *Puruṣasūkta* is devoted to deify Nārāyaṇa is evident from the *Pāūcarātra* scriptures, the *Mahābhārata* and a number of *smṛti*-texts. The *Subāla* and the *Taittirīya Upaniṣads* adopt the

<sup>347.</sup> See commentary on  $SR : \pm 1.11$ , p. 39.

<sup>348.</sup> See note 344.

<sup>349.</sup> Vide commentary on SR:  $\pm 1.11$ , p. 39.

<sup>350.</sup> Vide  $V\!\bar{a}jasaneyi~Samhit\bar{a}:31\text{-}19:$ "prajāpati<br/>ścarati garbhe antaḥ"

 $<sup>351.\,</sup>Rgveda: X-190-3:$  "sūryācandramasau dhātā yathāpūrvama-kalpayat".

<sup>352.</sup> Taittirīya  $\tilde{A}ranyaka$  : X-1-4 : "sa no bandhur janitā sa vidhātā"

<sup>353.</sup> See commentary on SR, p. 40.

<sup>354.</sup> Mahopanişad: I. These form the opening lines.

<sup>355.</sup> Taittiriya Āraņyaka: X-1-1.

<sup>356.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>357.</sup> Ibid.: X-1-2.

<sup>358.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>359.</sup> Ibid: X-1-3.

<sup>360.</sup> Viṣṇu is said to have the milky ocean as His abode, in the Purānas.

<sup>361.</sup> Taittirīya Āraṇyaka : III-13-2.

<sup>362.</sup> Vājasaneyi Samhitā: 31-19: "prajāpatiscarati garbhe antaḥ"

<sup>363.</sup> See commentary on SR:  $\pm 1.$  12, p. 40.

<sup>364.</sup> Taittirīya Āraņyaka : X-11-1.

<sup>365.</sup> Commentary on SR. pp. 40-41.

terminology of the *Puruṣasūkta* and imply thereby that Nārāyana alone is glorified by this *Sūkta*. Even the Śvetāśvatara which employs the term 'puruṣa' with reference to Rudra, also called 'Śambhu', 'Śiva' and Maheśvara', adopts the terminology of the *Puruṣasūkta* as "vedāhametam puruṣam mahāntam" and should therefore be taken as ultimately glorifying Nārāyana who dwells in everybody as "he Inner Self.

Some people identify the purusa described in the  $Purusas\bar{u}kta$  as possessing the colour of the Sun ( $\bar{a}dityavarna$ ), with the purusa in the  $Ch\bar{a}ndogya$  Upanisad, possessing the colour of the lightning<sup>367</sup> (vidyudvarna). This purusa is also said to reside in the Sun ( $\bar{a}dityamandala$ ) and he, according to these critics, could only be  $\bar{A}ditya$ , the Sun-god. They thus conclude that the purport of the  $Purusas\bar{u}kta$  is the glorification of the Sun, but not of  $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ . Another point that lends support to this view, according to the advocates of this view, is that there is a separate  $Pur\bar{a}na$  bearing the name of  $\bar{A}ditya$ , the Sun-god, viz.,  $\bar{A}ditya$   $Pur\bar{a}na$ .

But all these arguments, says Desika, deserve to be dismissed on account of the fact that the *Puruşa* of the *Chāndogya* is one that possesses lotus-eyes, *Pundarīkākṣa*,<sup>369</sup> a feature that is found only with Nārāyana, and not with any other deity. The abode of Viṣṇu, on the authority of many texts, is known to be located in the Sun.<sup>370</sup> As regards the Sun-god, he is not known to be supreme. On the other hand, he is said to have been born out of the Lord's eye<sup>371</sup> and as being brought into

existence by the Supreme in every kalpa, along with Candra, the moon-god. The supremacy of Āditya is also negated by the Kathopaniṣad—" $na\ tatra\ s\bar{u}ryo\ bh\bar{a}ti$ ". As regards the Āditya  $Pur\bar{a}na$  it does not belong to the  $s\bar{a}ttvika$  group of  $Pur\bar{a}nas$  and is therefore to be rejected where it postulates something contradictory. It is thus clear that the deity glorified by the Puruṣasukta is Nārāyaṇa alone.

Another point in favour of Viṣṇu's supremacy is that He alone initiates sattva, the quality of serenity in the beings, which is helpful in achieving mukti. Brahmā, the creator-god and Śiva, the destroyer-god, on the other hand, are said to promote the qualities of rajas (activity) and tamas (inertia) respectively, which result in ignorance and bondage. The Supremacy of Viṣṇu can also be understood by His luxurious dress, ornaments and paraphernalia, says Deśika. He is well-known as bedecked in a royal fashion—His saffron-coloured raiment, fold ornaments, crown, conch, disc, mace, sword, etc., which factors clearly bring out His sovereignty over Śiva and Brahmā, who do not have such features to their credit. His close association with Lakṣmī, the goddess of plenty, also lends support to this point.

This all-evident supremacy of Viṣṇu is not comprehended by those who are incapable of interpreting the Vedic texts properly. They get confused in explaining the terms, 'puruṣa' and 'Īśvara', with or without the prefixes, 'mahat' and 'parama', and misinterpret that Nārāyaṇa is inferior to Śiva in status. <sup>378</sup> Of special significance is the term, 'puruṣottama', applied to Nārāyaṇa which shows Him as the supreme (uttama) of all the beings (puruṣa).

<sup>366.</sup> Śvetāśvatara Upaniṣad : III-8. Vide Taittirīya Āranyaka : III-12-7.

<sup>367.</sup> Commentary on SR: p. 42.

<sup>368.</sup> Ibid: "ataḥ puruṣasūktamādityaparam"

<sup>369.</sup> Vide SR. śl. 12b : "kaḥ puṇḍarīkanayanaḥ"

Cf. Chāndogya Upanişad : I. 6. 8 : "tasya yathā kapyāsam pundarīkamevamakṣiṇī". See commentary on SR. p. 42.

<sup>370.</sup> Cf.  $S\bar{a}vitr\bar{\imath}kalpa$ : "dhyeyassadā savitṛmaṇḍalamadhyavartī" etc.

<sup>371.</sup> Rgveda: X-90-13: "caksossūryo ajāyata".

Cf. also ibid : VIII-44-16 : "agnir mūrdhā cakṣuṣī candrasūryau"

<sup>372.</sup> Rgveda: X-190-3 : "sūryācandramasau dhātā yathāpūrvamakalpayat".

<sup>373.</sup> V-15.

<sup>374.</sup> For a classification of the Purāṇic texts as sāttvika, rājasa, tāmasa etc., see the Matsya Purāṇa: Ch. LIII, śls. 67-69.

<sup>375.</sup> Vide commentary on SR: pp. 41-42.

<sup>376.</sup> Cf. Brhadāranyaka: IV-3-6: "tasya māhārajatam vāsah"

<sup>377.</sup> See commentary on SR: p. 73.

<sup>378.</sup> See commentary on SR. p. 43 : "brahmanah pituh brahmanah putrasya ca nikarsotkarsau manyante".

The Bhagavadgītā defines Purusottama as one that surpassed the perishable (kṣara) and the imperishable (akṣara), the Highest Self (paramātman) and the eternal Lord, pervading and sustaining the universe. The Gītā further states that Viṣnu is celebrated in the śruti and the smṛti-texts as the Supreme Person (purusottama). This definition thus sets aside the view maintained by some, that the term "purusottama" refers to Viṣnu merely conventionally. This term may be taken as a tatpuruṣa-compound either of the fifth, or the sixth, or even the seventh case. 380

Even the principles of  $M\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}ms\bar{a}$  exeges are in favour of this interpretation offered by the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  for the term "purusottama".  $Sam\bar{a}khy\bar{a}$  or derivation, according to the  $M\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}ms\bar{a}$ , is the last of the six methods of determining the relative strength of Vedic texts. <sup>381</sup> The preceding five are:  $\dot{s}ruti$ —direct enunciation, linga—indication,  $v\bar{a}kya$ —subsidiary statement, prakarana—context and  $sth\bar{a}na$ —order or sequence. Each succeeding item of these six is considered weaker than the preceding one, because it conveys its sense in a more remote way, that is, through the medium of the preceding ones.  $Sam\bar{a}khy\bar{a}$  thus occupies only the last place in determining the relative strength of passages. Viṣṇu's Supremacy is established, says Deśika, not merely on the strength of  $sam\bar{a}khy\bar{a}$ , viz., "purusottama", but on that of more powerful means like the  $\dot{s}ruti$  and the linga, as evidenced from the statement of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ .

Viṣṇu is well-known as the Supreme Being (mahāpuruṣa), and He is thus different from all the individual selves. If mere

samākhyā (designation) were the criterion, then even terms like "Īśvara" and "Indra" would have established the supremacy of particular deities denoted by those terms conventionally. But in the light of this interpretation of the term "purusottama", supported by śruti and linga, the supremacy of Viṣṇu over Śiva, Indra and others becomes firmly established. The other designations of Viṣṇu like Keśava, Vāsudeva and Nārāyaṇa, too, afford such an interpretation. 384

It is Viṣṇu that supports the entire universe consisting of all beings, including Śiva and Brahmā, by an infinitesimal part of His unlimited glory. The Puruṣasūkta and the Gītā are in full support of this. All that exists in this world, the material Nature (pradhāna), its three qualities of sattva, rajas and tamas, the individual souls (puruṣa), the highest abode (param padam), etc., are all various aspects of that vast glory. This view thus repudiates the Sānkhya conception that the three ingredients, sattva, rajas and tamas, in equilibrium are called prakrti. According to the Visiṣtādvaitin, these are distinct from matter and are qualities thereof. This is indicated by verse 17 of this Stotra, where the qualities sattva, etc., are mentioned separately from the prakrti.

Equally wrong is the conception that *prakṛti* could transform itself into an abode called *akṣara* and that it is the place of enjoyment for the Lord, the liberated and the eternally

<sup>379.</sup> Vide *Bhagavadgītā* XV. śls. 16-18. Deśika's *Tātparyacandrikā* under śl. 18 discusses the grammar of 'puruṣottama' and concludes that the term is *yoga-rūḍha*. *Cf.* also commentary on *SR*, p. 43.

<sup>380.</sup> Vide commentary on SR: śl. 13, p. 43.

Cf. Bhagavadgītā XV. śl. 18:

<sup>&</sup>quot;yasmāt kṣaramatīto 'ham akṣarādapi cottamaḥ ato 'smi loke vede ca prathitaḥ purusottamah"

<sup>381.</sup> PM. III. iii. 16:

<sup>&</sup>quot;śrutilingavākyaprakaranasthānasmākhyānām samavāye pāradaurbalyamarthaviprakarṣāt".

<sup>382.</sup> Vide Bhagavadgītā: XV. śls. 16-18

<sup>383.</sup> Vide commentary on SR. śl. 12, p. 43.

<sup>384.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>385.</sup> SR. śl. 12c : "kasyāyutāyutaśataikakalām<br/>śakāmśe" etc.

<sup>386.</sup> Vide *Taittirīya Āraṇyaka*:III. 12. 1: "puruṣa evedam sarvam" *Bhagavadgītā* X. śl.41b: "tattadeva......mama tejo'mśasambhavam"

Ibid: śl. 42: "athavā bahunaitena kim jñātena tavārjuna viṣṭabhyāhamidam kṛtsnamekāmsena sthito jagat"

 $<sup>\</sup>mathit{Ibid}: XI.$ 7a : "ihaikastham jagat kṛtsnam paśyādya sacarācaram"

Ibid: śl. 15: "paśyāmi devāmstava deva dehe", etc.

<sup>387.</sup> Vide SR. śl. 17c, d : "guṇāḥ pradhānam puruṣaḥ param padam parāt param brahma ca te vibhūtayaḥ"

liberated selves. This is suggested by the mention made of the Highest Abode (param padam) as distinct from prakṛti in the verse referred to above. Another point clarified by Deśika is that this aprākṛta Highest Abode is not the result of a transformation of either the Lord's form or of His sixfold perfections (sādgunya) such as Knowledge and Power, as contended by some. This abode, on the authority of many śruti and smṛti-texts, is known to be different from the form as well as the qualities of the Lord. If the form or the attributes of the Supreme be admitted to manifest themselves as the Highest Abode, then there will be the contradiction of śrutis which declare the Lord to be immutable. 389

The next point explained by Desika is that the qualities of the Lord are separate from the form of the Lord, but not identical therewith, as claimed by some.<sup>390</sup>

The next point is that creation is mutually complementary between the Lord and the beings. <sup>391</sup> The opponent's argument is that since the Lord is full of bliss, He would not create for His own pleasure (svārtha). Creation could not also be explained as for the benefit of the beings (parārtha), because of the fact that these beings are not happy. Deśika says that the cosmic activities of the Lord are for the benefit of the Creator, that is, His own Self, and also of the created beings. The virtues of the Lord are enjoyed by His devotees and are thus purposeful. The fact that creation is for the benefit of the beings (parārtha) is supported by śrutis such as "sarvam ha paśyah paśyati sarvamāpnoti sarvaśah". <sup>392</sup> The entire universe of sentient and insentient entites is conceived as the body of the Lord, and from this point of view, creation of the universe could also be explained to be in the interests of the Lord Himself (svārtha). <sup>393</sup>

Another point discussed is whether the liberated souls, who are said to achieve extreme similarity (paramasāmya) with Viṣṇu, could themselves carry on the creative and other activities of the universe or not. The conclusion arrived at is that these souls cannot carry on these cosmic functions. The identity spoken of in texts should be explained as based on the "body-and-soul" relation (sarīrātmabhāva) subsisting between these beings and the Lord. This identity can also be taken in a secondary sense as when two friends like Rāma and Sugrīva are said to be one. The liberated selves or the eternal ones are nowhere said to be the souls of all beings, as the Lord is said to be. If they are held to be so, then they should also be said to possess the power of creative desire (sankalpaśakti) like the Brahman to become many, which power, however, they do not possess.

The next discussion is on prapatti or śaranāgati. Prapatti or the path of surrender is open for one who is unable to follow the paths of action, knowledge and devotion (karmayoga, jñānayoga and bhaktiyoga) and who has no other way of salvation. <sup>398</sup> A correct understanding of the scriptural texts leads

<sup>388.</sup> Vide commentary on SR. p. 55.

<sup>389.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>390.</sup> Vide commentary on SR. p. 58.

<sup>391.</sup> Ibid: p. 59.

<sup>392.</sup> Chāndogya Upaniṣad VII-26-2; also Muṇḍaka VII-11.

<sup>393.</sup> Vide commentary on SR: p. 59.

<sup>394.</sup> Ibid: pp. 59-60.

<sup>395.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 59. Desika quotes from the  $Paramasamhit\bar{a}$ , passages that posit identity between the Lord and the liberated beings:

<sup>&</sup>quot;kena rūpena bhidyante muktāstava śarīrinah etadācakṣva me deva guhyād guhyataram param ahameva bhavantyete na bhedastatra kaścana yathāham viharāmyevam tathā muktāśca dehinah" [I:68-69] 396. Vide commentary on SR: p. 59.

 $<sup>\</sup>it Cf.\ R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana: V. 35, 52a:$  "rāmasugrīvayoraikyam devyevam samajāyata"

<sup>397.</sup> This "sankalpa" of the Brahman is referred to in the Chāndogya: "tadaikṣata bahu syām prajāyeya" [VI. ii. 3]
Vide commentary on SR: p. 60.

<sup>398.</sup> Cf. SR. śl. 22:

<sup>&</sup>quot;na dharmanistho 'smi na cātmavedī na bhaktimān tvaccaranāravinde akińcano 'nanyagatiśśaranya! tvatpādamūlam śaranam prapadye"

one to the path of selfless action (karmayoga). This in turn, makes one conquer one's mind and meditate on the pure self. which results in self-realisation ( $i\bar{n}\bar{a}nayoga$ ). This self-realisation can be attained even through karmayoga directly. One who has reached this stage is entitled to bhaktiyoga or the path of devotion, which culminates in salvation. Even in the case of a man who does not practise karmayoga in the present birth, the karmayoga of his previous births may qualify him to undertake iñānayoga. Even if both these yogas or 'disciplines' be absent, the bhaktiyoga of the preceding births will be enough to effect salvation.399 It is to the exclusion of all these three paths that Surrender (prapatti or śaranāgati or nyāsa) is to be practised. This discipline of prapatti is supported by the śruti-text, "mumuksurvai śaranamaham prapadye". 400 The term "śarana" which can be interpreted as a "house", a "saviour" or the "means", should here be taken in the last sense, viz., that of the means (upāya).401

Desika records the definitions offered by older texts to prapatti and reconciles their apparent differences. The generally accepted definitions of prapatti are:

(a) Prapatti is a state of mind praying to the Lord that He alone should become the means of saving the devotee, associated with the realisation that he is utterly helpless, sinful and without any other hope of salvation.402

(b) Prapatti is a state of prayerfulness of mind, associated with the firm conviction that the Lord alone is the Saviour and that there is no other way of attaining Him, except by such surrender.403

The path of surrender is glorified by texts to be highly efficacious and powerful in dispelling all sins, and in bringing about all that one desires, including moksa.

Regarding the accessories (angas) of prapatti, some say that they are six, while others maintain that they are only five in number. 404 These accessories are: (i) a positive mental attitude of resolve to keep oneself always in consonance with the Lord's Will (ānukūlyasya sankalpah), (ii) a negative attitude of avoiding everything that is against His will (prātikūlyasya varjanam), (iii) a supreme faith that the Lord will protect the devotee (rakşişyatīti viśvāsah), (iv) seeking Him as a Saviour (goptrtvavaranam), (v) utter resignation or laying the entire burden of one's self at His feet (atmaniksepa) and (vi) a sense of complete meekness and helplessness (kārpanya). 405 The Ahirbudhnya Samhitā speaks of another accessory of prapatti. which is characterised by complete absence of desire in fruit. 406

<sup>399.</sup> See commentary on SR, p. 61. This explains why after negating dharmanisthā, ātma-jāāna and bhakti are also denied.

<sup>400.</sup> Śvetāśvatara Upanisad: VI. 18.

<sup>401.</sup> Cf. AS. ch. 37. : śl. 29b-30a :

<sup>&</sup>quot;upāye grharaksitrossabdassaranamityayam vartate sämpratam tvesa upāyārthaikavācakah"

Vide commentary on SR.: p. 62.

<sup>402.</sup> Vide Deśika's commentary on SR, p. 62, where he quotes the following from AS. ch. 37: \(\xi\)1. 30b-31:

<sup>&</sup>quot;ahamasmyaparādhānāmālayo 'kiñcano 'gatiḥ tvamevopāyabhūto me bhaveti prārthanāmatih śaranāgatirityuktā sā deve 'smin pravujvatām"

<sup>403.</sup> See Deśika's commentary on SR. p. 62, where he attributes the following to one Bharatamuni:

<sup>&</sup>quot;ananyasädhye sväbhiste mahävisväsapürvakam tadekopāyatā yācñā prapattis saranāgatih"

<sup>404.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>405.</sup> Vide Ah: S. ch. 37, śl. 28-29a;

<sup>&</sup>quot;ānukūlyasya sankalpah prātikūlyasya varjanam raksisyatīti visvāsah goptrtvavaraņam tathā ātmanikşepakārpaņye şadvidhā śaranāgatih"

<sup>406.</sup> Ibid: ch. 52, sls. 14-15a:

<sup>&</sup>quot;śāśvatī mama samsiddhiriyam prahvībhayāmi vat puruşam paramuddisya na me siddhirito 'nyathā ityangamuditam śrestham phalepsā tadvirodhini" See commentary on SR, p. 62

Whatever the definitions of prapatti be, the main requisite is that one should completely entrust one's cares and responsibilities to the Lord  $(bharany\bar{a}sa)$  in a sense of prayer  $(pr\bar{a}rthan\bar{a})$ . There are some texts which say that prapatti is an accessory of bhakti, but such statements are applicable to the particular stage reached by an aspirant or a qualified devotee. 410

Some may argue that those who know the Reality (tattva) need not do prapatti of the type of complete resignation (bharanyāsa) at all.<sup>411</sup> But this view is controverted by texts which ordain prapatti. There is still another view that prapatti is nothing more than one's awareness of one's relation of the Lord (sambandha).<sup>412</sup> This view is opposed not only to texts on prapatti but also to our ordinary experience. Thus, for instance, a servant

might be aware of his connection with his master, but he need not necessarily have surrendered to him. Similarly, an enemy who is forced to surrender, might not at all think that he is a servant of the man to whom he had surrendered.<sup>413</sup>

This Stotraratna of Yāmuna and the commentary on it by Desika are thus, of substantial value in understanding the Visiṣṭādvaita conception of the Supreme Being as associated with His Consort Lakṣmī and the nature and evolution of the Doctrine of Surrender to Him.

These ideas, according to the followers of this school, were already present in the  $Bhagavadg\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ , one of the texts of the  $Prasth\bar{a}natraya$ . Naturally, Yāmuna interpreted the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  from the veiw-point of a Visiṣṭādvaitin—in a small compendium of thirty-two stanzas in the  $anu\bar{\imath}tubh$  metre called the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}rthasangraha$ . To a study of this, we shall now devote the next section.

# (c) The Gītārthasaṅgraha

The  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{\alpha}rthasa\dot{n}graha$ , as the very name implies, is an epitome of the teaching of the  $Bhagavadg\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ , which is the essence of all the  $Upanisads.^{414}$  The  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  is treated here from the standpoint of a Visistadvaitin. Tradition records the Yāmuna was taught the  $Bhagavadg\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  by his predecessor, Śrīrāmamiśra, in his attempts to attract the former to the path of renunciation. It is therefore proper to suppose that the brief references made by Yāmuna here to the important topics dealt with in the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ , incorporate in a synthetic and systematic manner, the traditional

<sup>407.</sup> Cf. "na dharmanistho 'smi", etc.

<sup>408.</sup> Vide commentary on SR. p. 62. The Tengalai school does not admit angas or accessories to prapatti. To them prapatti is not upāya, but an adhikārivišeṣaṇa.

<sup>409.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 63: "prärthanānvito hi bharanyāsah prapattih". Such an attitude, according to the Southern School, is in consonance with the relation between the self and the Lord, while even *bhakti-yoga*, with its stress on individual effort and the Lord's response thereto, is not so.

<sup>410.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>411.</sup> Commentary on SR. śl. 53, p. 82. Periyavāccān Piļļai in his commentary on this verse points out that even the offering of the self to the Lord is improper in that it implies that the self has not belonged to the Lord and is being offered to him.

<sup>412.</sup>  $\mathit{Ibid}$ : "sambandhajñānamātrameva prapattiriti vādasca ata eva nirasto lokaviruddhasca".

<sup>413.</sup> *Ibid*: "aprapanne'pi sambandhabuddhir dāsepi dṛśyate amitre gatyabhāvena prapannepi na dāsyadhīḥ"

<sup>414.</sup> Note the colophonic readings of all the eighteen chapters of the  $Bhagava\acute{d}g\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ : "iti śrīmadbhagavadgītāsu upanişatsu...." etc. Also cf. Deśika's introductory remarks in his commentary on GS., p. 1: "tadetadubhayam sarvopanişatsārasankalanātmikāyām hhagavadgītāyām", etc.

<sup>415.</sup> Cf. PA. ch. 112, p. 437.

interpretation of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ , which he had received from his teacher.

This work influenced the later writers of this school, of whom Rāmānuja is the foremost. Rāmānuja's commentary on the *Bhagavadgītā* was inspired and guided by this work of Yāmuna, which is quoted as an authority. The validity and importance of this text can also be gauged from the fact that it had been commented upon by Vedāntadesika, bringing out the latest points of philosophical and doctrinal value, in a detailed and analytical way. This commentary is called the *Gītārthasangraharakṣā*.

Out of the thirty-two anustubh verses comprising the text of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}rthasangraha$ ,  $^{417}$  the first one brings out the main theme or the subject dealt with in the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ , as a whole. The second, third and fourth stanzas presuppose a division of all the eighteen chapters of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  into three sections of six chapters each, a satka, and mention the major theme dealt with in each satka. The succeeding eighteen verses enumerate the topics dealt with in each of the eighteen chapters. The concluding ten verses are supplementary in nature, explaining the connotation, significance and other details of the three yogas (i.e., the karma, the  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  and the bhakti), the obligatory (nitya) and the occasional (naimittika) acts, parabhakti, a supreme state of devotion, the characterisation of and instructions to a man of knowledge  $(j\bar{n}\bar{a}nin)$  who is an exclusive devotee of the Lord regarding his code of conduct, etc.

The central theme of the  $G\bar{\iota}t\bar{a}$ , which the author consistently refers to as a  $\pm \bar{a}stra$ , that is, an Upanisad, a text of instructional value, is a delineation and glorification of Nārāyaṇa, the Supreme Being. This  $\pm \bar{a}stra$  explains that the Supreme Being can be realised only through loving devotion to Him (bhakti). Such loving devotion can be acquired and cultivated by the following factors: a sincere performance of duties pertaining to one's station in life (svadharma) gives correct knowledge ( $\pm \bar{n}ana$ ) regarding one's self that it is ever subordinate to the Lord; this produces a sense of detachment (vairāgya) from all things other than the Supreme Being. This results in Bhakti. Thus, according to  $\pm \bar{a}na$  the sadhya, and all others, sādhanas.

The first six chapters (satka) of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  are devoted to an exposition and commendation of the two paths of discipline, that of action (karman) and of knowledge  $(j\bar{n}\bar{a}na)$ . These two courses of discipline aim at mental concentration, and their main purpose is knowledge of the self or self-realisation  $(\bar{a}tm\bar{a}nubh\bar{u}ti)$ .

The next six chapters deal elaborately with the *bhaktiyoga* or the path of devotion, which, as has already been stated,  $^{421}$  results from selfless action and self-knowledge (*karman* and  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$ ). Bhaktiyoga helps to foster an unbroken stream of realisation of the real nature of the Bhagavān, the Adorable, who is the repository of six perfections (*bhaga*), like Knowledge ( $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$ ), Power (sakti), Strength (sakti) and Lordship (aisvarya).  $^{422}$ 

<sup>416.</sup> Desika expressly states that Yāmuna's GS. incorporates the instruction he received from Śrīrāmamiśra, when commenting upon the colophonic words of the last verse, p. 16: "itthameva sattvaniṣṭhasampradāyaparamparāgatassamīcīno Gītārthaḥ, sa caiṣa svayogamahimaculukitaparamapuruṣavibhūtiyugaļabhagavannāthamuniniyogānuvartiśrīmadrāmamiśrasakāśād bhuśāstravidbhirasmābhir bahuśāsśrutasya bhagavadgītārthaprapañcasya saṅgraha iti".

<sup>417.</sup> An English translation of this work with an Introduction and study by Sri D.T. Tatacharya appeared in the *Journal* of *Sri Venkatesvara Oriental Institute*, Vols. XII. Nos. 1 & 2, XIII, Nos. 1 & 2, and XIV, No. 1.

<sup>418.</sup> Cf. GS. śl. 1b: ".....gītāśāstre samīritah"; śl. 5b:

<sup>&</sup>quot;......śāstrāvataraṇamkṛtam"; śl. 22b: "......śāstrasārārtha ucyate"; and śl. 32b: "......tatpradhānamidam śāstram". *Cf.* also *Brahmasūtra* I. i. 3: "śāstrayonitvāt". See Deśika's commentary on *GS*. p. 3.

<sup>419.</sup> GS. śl. 1:

<sup>&</sup>quot;svadharmajñānavairāgyasādhyabhaktyekagocaraḥ nārāyaṇaḥ paraṁ brahma gītāśāstre samīritaḥ"

<sup>420.</sup> *Ibid* : śl. 2 :

<sup>&</sup>quot;jñānakarmātmike niṣṭhe yogalakṣye susaṁskṛte ātmānubhūtisiddhyarthe pūrvaṣaṭkena codite"

<sup>421.</sup> *Ibid* : śl. 1a .

<sup>422.</sup> Vide GS. śl. 3:

<sup>&</sup>quot;madhyame bhagavattattvayāthātmyāvāptisiddhaye jñānakarmābhinirvartyo bhaktiyogah prakīrtitah"

The third satka, being of general character, enters into further details regarding the subjects already dealt with in the preceding two satkas, like the distinguishing features of the inert material Nature in the unmanifest condition (pradhāna), the sentient individual soul (purusa), the entire world of matter in its manifest condition (vyakta), the Supreme Lord (Sarveśvara), the triple path of action (Karma) knowledge ( $dh\bar{i}$ ) and devotion (bhakti).423

So far, the author has enumerated the topics dealt with in the entire text of the Bhagavadgitā, dividing it broadly into three sections of six chapters each. The next verse (5) and the following seventeen verses enumerate the topics treated in each of the eighteen chapters of the Gitā in a more detailed manner.

The fifth stanza<sup>424</sup> says that the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ , as a  $s\bar{a}stra$ , had been imparted to Arjuna who had a mistaken notion of right and wrong (dharmādharmadhī), due to misplaced affection and misplaced compassion. The point to be noted here is that the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ was imparted to Arjuna, only when he had surrendered to the Lord in all sincerity. 425

Arjuna had a wrong notion of things so far as the real nature of the self is concerned and also, on the lower plane, of the righteous and unrighteous nature of war. The second chapter of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  aims at dispelling this misconception. To achieve this objective, it deals with two yogas—one of the eternal self, and the other of action done with detachment from all fruits-the 'Sānkhya' and the 'Yoga'. This chapter also explains how these two yogas result in a steady knowledge (sthitaprajñā). This is what the sixth verse of the Sangraha mentions. 426

It may be noted that verses 12 to 38 of the second chapter of the Gītā deal with 'Sānkhya', or the eternal nature of the self. verses 39 to 53 with 'Yoga' or detached action, and verses 54 to 72, with the way of achieving the "steady knowledge".

The third chapter of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  emphasises the importance and inevitability of doing things in a spirit of non-attachment (asakti) to the accruing fruits, keeping in view the good of the common people (lokasangraha). Acts can be performed by transferring the agency either to the three gunas of Prakrti, viz., sattva, rajas and tamas, or to the Supreme Lord Himself. This is what the next verse of the Sangraha states. 427

Accordingly, the first nineteen verses of the third chapter of the  $G\bar{\iota}t\bar{a}$  stress the need of doing action without attachment. That this detached action is to be done by the wise for the good of the world is stated in verse 20 and explained in verses 21 to 26. Ascription of agency to the qualities is mentioned in verses 27 to 29, and that to the Lord in verses 30 to 43.429

In the succeeding stanza<sup>430</sup> Yāmuna mentions that the fourth chapter of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  speaks of the real nature of the Lord in His incarnations (verses 5 to 15).431 This chapter also explains

<sup>423.</sup> Ibid: śl. 4:

<sup>&</sup>quot;pradhānapurusavyaktasarveśvaravivecanam karma dhir bhaktirityādih pürvaseşo 'ntimoditah"

<sup>424.</sup> Ibid. sl. 5:

<sup>&</sup>quot;asthänasnehakärunvadharmädharmadhiväkulam pārtham prapannamuddisya sāstrāvataraņam kṛtam"

<sup>425.</sup> Vide the Bhagavadgītā: II, 7d:

<sup>&</sup>quot;śisyaste 'ham śādhi mām 'tvām prapannam"

<sup>426.</sup> Cf. GS. \(\xeta\)1. 6:

<sup>&</sup>quot;nitvātmāsangakarmehāgocarā sānkhyayogadhīh dvitive sthitadhilakşyā proktā tanmohaśāntaye"

<sup>427.</sup> Ibid. śl. 7:

<sup>&</sup>quot;asaktyā lokaraksāyai gunesvāropya kartrtām j sarveśvare vā nyasyoktā tṛtīye karmakāryatā"

<sup>428.</sup> Cf. Bhagavadgītā: III. 19:

<sup>&</sup>quot;tasmādasaktassatatam kāryam karma samācara asakto hyācaran karma paramāpnoti pūruşah" 429. Ibid: śl. 30:

<sup>&</sup>quot;mayi sarvāni karmāni samnyasyādhyātmacetasā

nirāsīr nirmamo bhūtvā yuddhyasva vigatajvarah" Also cf. ibid: śls. 31 and 32.

<sup>430.</sup> Vide GS. sl. 8:

<sup>&</sup>quot;prasangāt svasvabhāvoktih karmano 'karmatā 'sya ca bhedā jñānasya māhātmyam caturthādhyāya ucyate"

<sup>431.</sup> Cf. Bhagavadgītā: IV. 5-6:

<sup>&</sup>quot;bahūni me vyatītāni janmāni tava cārjuna tānyaham veda sarvāni na tvam vettha parantapa ajo 'pi sannavyayātmā bhūtānāmīśvaro 'pi san prakrtim svāmadhisthāya sambhavāmyātmamāyayā" Also cf. %bid: sls. 7 and 8.

the way how 'action' could become 'knowledge' (akarma) (16 to 24) and speaks of its varieties (25 to 32). It also emphasises the superiority of knowledge ( $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$ ) to all varieties of action (33 to 42).

The fifth chapter reveals that the path of detached action (karmayoga) is easier to perform and that it also yields results in a shorter span of time than that of knowledge  $(j\bar{n}\bar{a}nayoga)$ . The ways and means of achieving this karmayoga (8 to 19), as also the methods of attaining self-realisation (20 to 29), are explained in this chapter. This is the teaching of the ninth verse of the  $G\bar{\iota}t\bar{a}rthasangraha$ . It may also be noted that this marks the end of the first satka.

The tenth verse of the  $Sangraha^{435}$  points out that the sixth chapter of the  $G\bar{\iota}t\bar{a}$  is devoted to the method of practising yoga (1 to 28). 436 This chapter further classifies yogins into four types (9 to 32) and explains the way of achieving this yoga (35-36). 437

432. Cf. ibid: śl. 33:

"śreyān dravyamayād yajñāt jñānayajñah parantapa sarvam karmākhilam pārtha jñāne parisamāpyate"

433. See ibid: V. 1 to 7, especially sls. 3 and 6:

"jñeyassa.....sukham bandh**āt pramuc**yate", and "samnyāsastu.....na cirenādhigacchati"

434. Vide GS. sl. 9:

"karmayogasya saukaryam śaighryam kāścana tadvidhāḥ brahmajñānaprakāraśca pañcamādhyāya ucyate"

435. Ibid: śl. 10:

"yogābhyāsavidhir yogī caturdhā, yogasādhanam yogasiddhissvayogasya pāramyam şaṣṭha ucyate"

436. Cf. Bhagavadgītā: VI. 10:

"yogī yuñjita satatam ātmānam rahasi sthitaḥ ekākī yatacittātmā nirāsīraparigrahaḥ"

437. Ibid : śl. 29 :

"sarvabhūtasthamātmānam sarvabhūtāni cātmani īkṣate yogayuktātmā sarvatra samadarśanah"

Also  $cf.\ ibid:$  śl. 35b: "abhyāsena tu kaunteya vairāgyena ca grhyate"

The actual results that follow this yoga-performance are also referred to  $(37-46)^{438}$ . The supreme character of the yoga pertaining to the Lord, in the form of devoted worship, is also brought out in this chapter (47).

In the succeeding stanza, 440 Yāmuna says that the seventh chapter of the  $G\bar{\iota}t\bar{a}$  is devoted to an exposition of the reality about the Lord's own nature (1 to 12),441 that it is hidden from the ordinary human beings by material Nature (called prakṛti or  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ ) consisting of the three guṇas—sattva, rajas and tamas (13 to 14a)442 and that this  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  can be dispelled by the sole means of surrendering to Him (śaranāgati) (14b).443 This chapter also makes a four-fold classification of the devotion to the Lord (16)444 and emphasises the superiority of a man of wisdom (jñānin) (17 to 30).445

438. Cf. ibid: \(\xeta\)1. 40, ff.

439. Cf. ibid: śl. 47:

"yogināmapi sarveṣām madgatenāntarātmanā śraddhāvān bhajate yo mām sa me yuktatamo mataḥ"

440. Vide GS. sl. 11:

"svayāthātmyam prakṛtyā' sya tirodhiśśaraṇāgatiḥ bhaktibhedaḥ prabuddhasya śraiṣṭhyam saptama ucyate"

441. Cf. Bhagavadgītā: VII. 4, 5.

442. *Ibid*: śl. 13:

"tribhir guṇamayairbhāvairebhissarvamidam jagat mohiṭam nābhijānāti māmebhyaḥ paramavyayam"

śl. 14a: "daivi hyeşä gunamayi mama māyā duratyayā", and

śl. 25 : "nāhamprakāśassarvasya yogamāyāsamāvṛtaḥ mūḍho 'yam nābhijānāti loko māmajamavyayam'"

443. *Ibid.* śl. 14b : "māmeva ye prapadyante māyāmetām taranti

Cf. 19a: "bahunām janmanāmante jñānavān mām prapadyate"

444. ibid : śl. 16 :

"caturvidhā bhajante mām janāssukṛtino 'rjuna ārto jijnāsurarthārthī jñānī ca bharatarṣabha"

445. Ibid: śl. 17: "teṣām jñānī nityayukta ekbhaktir viśiṣyate" Also Cf. 18a "......jñānītvātmaiva me matam"

The eighth chapter of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  deals with the distinction between things to be known (3, ff.)<sup>446</sup> and the methods to be followed (6, ff.)<sup>447</sup> by the devotees of the Lord, who had been classified in the preceding chapter as four-fold<sup>448</sup>— $\bar{a}rta$ ,  $jij\bar{n}\bar{a}su$ ,  $arth\bar{a}rthin$  and  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}nin$ , whose object is material gain, or self-realisation or the Lord Himself.<sup>449</sup> This is the essence of the twelfth verse of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}rthasangraha$ .<sup>450</sup>

The ninth chapter of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  extols the glory of the Lord  $(4, \mathrm{ff.})^{461}$  and refers to His transcendent and immutable character even while He takes up a human form, i.e, an incarnation (11, ff). This chapter also mentions the greatness of noble menmahātmans (13, ff.) and deals with bhaktiyoga (22, ff). This is what the thirteenth verse of the Sangraha points out.

446. Ibid: VIII, 3: "akṣaram brahma paramam..." etc.

447. Ibid: \(\x\)1. 6:

"yam yam vāpi smaran bhāvam tyajatyante kalebaram tam tamevaiti kaunteya sadā tadbhāvabhāvitah"

448. Vide f.n. 444. Strictly speaking, this is a three-fold classification,  $\bar{a}rta$  and  $arth\bar{a}rthin$ , being one in essence. Cf. Rāmānuja's  $bh\bar{a}sya$  on the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ : VIII: 16, p. 218 (Kāńci edn). "ārtaḥ bhraṣṭaiśvaryaḥ, punastatprāptikāmaḥ; arthārthī aprāptaiśvaryatayā aiśvaryakāmaḥ; tayor mukhabhedamātram; aiśvaryaviṣayatayaikyādeka evādhikāraḥ".

449. Cf. Rāmānuja's bhāṣya on the Gītā: VII. 16: "jijñāsuḥ prakṛtiviyuktātmasvarūpāvāptīcchuḥ; jñānamevāsya svarūpamiti jijñāsurityuktam; jñānī ca...bhagavaccheṣataikarasātmasvarūpavit prakṛtiviyutakevalātmanyaparyavasyan bhagavantam prepsuḥ bhagavantameva paramaprāpyam manvānaḥ".

450. Vide: "aiśvaryākṣarayāthātmyabhagavaccaraṇārthinām vedyopādeyabhāvānāmaṣṭame bheda ucyate"

451. Cf. Bhagavadgītā: IX. 4: "mayā tatamidam sarvam..." etc.

 $452.\ Ibid$  : śl. 11 : "avajānanti mām mūdhā mānuṣīm tanumāśritam", etc.

453. Ibid: IX. 13:

"mahātmānastu mām pārtha daivīm prakṛtimāśritāḥ bajantyananyamanaso jñātvā bhūtādimavyayam"

454. Ibid: śl. 22: "ananyāścintayanto mām", etc.

śl. 26: "patram puspam...bhaktyā prayacchati" etc.

śl. 29: "samo'ham.....bhaktyā mayi te, teşu cāpyaham"

455. Vide: "svamāhātmyam manusyatve paratvam ca mahātmanām viseso navame yogo bhaktirūpah prakīrtitah"

The next verse<sup>456</sup> mentions that the tenth chapter of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{\alpha}$  deals elaborately with the innumerable virtues of the Lord (1 to 41) and His absolute control over the entire universe (42).<sup>457</sup> This aims at producing and fostering devotion in man.

Chapter eleven of the  $G\bar{t}t\bar{a}$  points out that the Lord graced Arjuna with divine vision to enable him see His Cosmic Form  $(visvar\bar{u}pa)$  (8).<sup>458</sup> This chapter brings out the great importance of bhakti by saying that even knowing (vidi) and attaining the Supreme  $(pr\bar{a}pti)$  could take place only through bhakti (54).<sup>459</sup> This, in short, is the substance of the fifteenth stanza of the Sangraha.<sup>460</sup>

The sixteenth verse of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}rthasangraha^{461}$  addresses itself to chapter twelve of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ , which dwells upon the superior character of the path of Devotion (bhakti) and the means

456. Vide śl. 14 : "svakalyāṇaguṇānantyakṛtsnasvādhīnatāmatiḥ bhaktyutpattivivṛddhyarthā vistīrṇā daśamoditā"

457. Cf. Bhagavadgītā: X. 42:

"athavā bahunaitena kim jñātena tavārjuna viṣṭabhyāham idam kṛtsnamekāmsena sthito jagat"

458. Ibid: XI, 5:

"paś ya me pārtha rūpāṇi śataśo 'tha sahasraś aḥ nānāvidhāni divyāni nānāvarṇākṛ tīni ca"

*Ibid*: śl. 8:

"na tu mām śakṣyase draṣṭumanenaiva svacakṣuṣā divyam dadāmi te cakṣuḥ paśya me yogamaiśvaram"

459. Ibid: XI. 54:

"bhaktyātvananyayā śakya ahamevamvidho 'rjuna jñātum draṣṭum ca tattvena praveṣṭum ca parantapa"

460. Vide : "ekādaśe svayāthātmyasākṣātkārāvalokanam dattam, uktam vidiprāptyor bhaktyekopāyatā tathā"

Commenting upon the term "avalokanam" of this verse, Deśika says (p.9): "avalokyate aneneti avalokanamiha divyam caksuh"

461. Vide : "bhakteśśraiṣṭhyam, upāyoktiḥ aśaktasyātmaniṣṭhatā tatprakārāstvatiprītīr bhakte dvādaśa ucyate"

of achieving it (9 and 10).  $^{462}$  It also reveals that one incapable of practising bhaktiyoga could take up the path of Action (karma) and Knowledge ( $j\tilde{n}anayoga$ ) and sets forth the accessories of  $j\tilde{n}ana$  (13, ff).  $^{463}$  This chapter also reveals that the Lord is extremely affectionate to one devoted to Himself  $^{464}$  (20).

Chapter 13, according to Yāmuna, reveals the real nature of the body, the means of realising the self (7, ff)<sup>465</sup> which is shown to be distinct from the physical body (12, ff)<sup>466</sup> and also the cause of bondage of the self in the body (21).<sup>467</sup> This chapter further enumerates the distinguishing characteristics of the self (24).<sup>468</sup> This, in a nutshell, is the teaching of the seventeenth sloka of the Gītārthasangraha.<sup>469</sup>

462. Cf. Bhagavadgītā: XII, 9 and 10:

"atha cittam samādhātum na śaknosi mayi sthiram abhyāsayogena tato māmicchāptum dhanañjaya abhyāse 'pyasamartho'si matkarmaparamo bhava madarthamapi karmāni kurvan siddhimavāpsyasi"

463. *Ibid* : śl. 13 :

"adveşţā sarvabhūtānām maitraḥ karuṇa eva ca nirmamo nirahankārassamaduḥkhasukhaḥ kṣamī"

464.  $Ibid: \pm 1.20:$ 

"ye tu dharmyāmṛtamidam yathoktam paryupāsate śraddadhānā matparamā bhaktāste 'tīva me priyāḥ"

465. Ibid. XIII. 7:

"amānitvamadambhitvamahimsā kṣāntirārjavam ācāryopāsanam śaucam sthairyamātmavinigrahah"

466. *Ibid*: śl. 12:

"jñeyam yattat pravakṣyāmi yajjñātvāmṛtamaśnute anādimat param brahma na sattannāsaducyate"

467. Ibid: śl. 21:

"purusah prakṛtistho hi bhunkte prakṛtijān guṇān kāraṇam guṇasango 'sya sadasadyonijanmasu"

468. Ibid: śl. 24:

"dhyānenātmani paśyanti kecidātmānamātmanā anye sānkhyena yogena karmayogena cāpare"

469. Vide:

"dehasvarūpamātmāptihetur ātmavisodhanam bandhahetur vivekasca trayodasa udīryate"

Chapter 14 explains how the qualities of the material Nature bind the soul, how they become the agents of action and also the way of getting clear of these qualities (26).<sup>470</sup> The fact that the Lord alone forms the source of the three goals—aksara, aiśvarya and bhagavatprāpti, is also pointed out in this chapter. This is what Yāmuna refers to in the eighteenth verse of the text.<sup>471</sup>

The fifteenth chapter of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  speaks of the Purusottama or the Supreme Lord, as distinguished from what Yāmuna describes as  $acinmi\acute{s}ra\text{-}cetana$  and  $vi\acute{s}uddha\text{-}cetana$ , meaning thereby the k sara and the ak sara of the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  (the embodied self as well as the released self), on the ground of His being the pervader, supporter and master of them.

Chapter sixteen mentions that the injunctions of a śāstra should be observed by all, after classifying the thoughts and actions of men into the daiva (divine) and the āsura (demoniac) types. This has been done in order to strengthen man's understanding regarding the Highest Reality and the means he has to adopt to attain It. This is the summary of the twentieth stanza of the Sangraha.<sup>473</sup>

<sup>470.</sup> Cf. Bhagavadgītā: XIV. 26:

<sup>&</sup>quot;mām ca yo 'vyabhicārena bhaktiyogena sevate sa gunān samatītyaitān brahmabhūyāya kalpate"

<sup>471.</sup> Vide GS. sl. 18:

<sup>&</sup>quot;guņabandhavidhā teṣām kartṛtvam tennivartanam gatitrayasvamūlatvam caturdaśa udīryate"

<sup>472.</sup> Ibid. śl. 19:

<sup>&</sup>quot;acinmiśrād viśuddhācca cetanāt puruṣottamaḥ" Vyāpanād bharaṇāt svāmyād anyaḥ pañcadaśoditaḥ"

Cf. Bhagavadgitā: XV. 17:

<sup>&</sup>quot;uttamah purusastvanyah paramatmeyudah rtah yo lokatrayamavisya bibhartyavyaya isvarah"

<sup>473.</sup> Vide: "deväsuravibhāgoktipūrvikā sāstravasyatā tattvānusthānavijñānasthemne sodasa ucyate"

Chapter 17 clarifies that all acts done against the sanctions of the sāstra become āsura or demoniac in character. 474 Acts enjoined by the scriptures are of different types, according to the three qualities (sāttvika, rājasa and tāmasa). The chief characteristic or the symbol or the insignia of that which is śāstraic is said to be marked by the three syllables, 'om', 'tat' and 'sat'. 475 This, in short, is the essence of the twenty-first verse of the Sangraha. 476

The last chapter of the  $G\bar{i}t\bar{a}$  is said in the 22nd verse of the Sangraha<sup>477</sup> to deal with the manner of ascribing the agency of acts to the Lord (14),478 the desirability of establishing one's own self in the quality of sattva, the evolution of one's own action and the most important teaching (bhakti and prapatti). 479

The further verses (23 to 32) of the Sangraha are supplementary in nature, explaining the significance and connotation of the three yogas, the paramabhakti, the fruits they bring in, and the like.

By Karmayoga is meant performance of acts like penance, resorting to holy places, giving away things, sacrifices, etc. 480 By Jñānayoga is meant meditation on the pure self with the mind under full control. 481 Bhaktiyoga is to be interpreted as concentration, etc. on the Lord and also on venerable persons with onepointed love.482

It is also pointed out by Yamuna that these three yogas can intermix to some degree. The obligatory and the occasional rites are associated with them to a little extent, and the performance of these rites should also be understood as a form of worshipping the Supreme. 483 All these three yogas result in self-realisation through concentration. 484 The understanding that one's own self is naturally subservient to the Supreme, arises in one free from the spell of ignorance, and this understanding takes one up to a superior state of Devotion, called technically Parabhakti. through which the Highest is attained. 485 Bhaktiyoga, it is said, can bring in immense material prosperity, should the man practising it desire so. But if the realisation of the self alone happens to be his aim, Bhaktiyoga, along with the Karma and Jñāna yogas, will realise it. But, in either case, it is essential for the man to be a devotee of the Lord. If, however, the man is solely intent on attaining the Supreme Being forever, he would certainly attain his aim.486

YĀMUNA'S CONTRIBUTION TO VIŚISTĀDVAITA

The remaining four stanzas of the text (sls. 29-32) dwell upon and glorify the characteristics of a man of wisdom (jñānin) and also lay down instructions regarding his code of conduct.

The  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}nin$  is characterised as one who is exclusively devoted to the Lord, and who has his very life sustained thereby. His devotion to the Lord will be so intense that for him sukha and duhkha are his contact with and separation from the Lord respectively. He attains his original state as an individual self by engaging himself in various activities connected with the Lord. as for example, contemplating on Him, praising His glory, repeating His holy names, and saluting Him. He performs all

<sup>474.</sup> Cf. Gītā: XVII, 5, ff: "aśāstravihitam ghoram..." etc.

<sup>475.</sup> Ibid: XVII, 23, ff.

<sup>476.</sup> Vide: "aśāstramāsuram krtsnam śāstrīvam gunatah prthak laksanam sästrasiddhasya tridhā saptadasoditam"

<sup>477.</sup> Vide: "Iśvare kartrtābuddhissattvopādevatāntime svakarmaparināmasca sāstrasārārtha ucyate"

<sup>478.</sup> Cf. Gītā: XVIII. 14:

<sup>&</sup>quot;adhisthanam tatha karta karanam ca prthagvidham vividhāśca pṛthak ceṣṭā daivam caivātra pañcamam"

<sup>479.</sup> śl. 64 of the  $Git\ddot{a}$ : "sarvaguhyatamam bhūyah.." etc., introduces this point, and sls. 65: "manmanā bhava madbhaktah..", and 66: "sarvadharmān parityajya", explain it.

<sup>480.</sup> Vide GS. śl. 23a: "karmayogastapastīrthadānayajñādisevanam"

<sup>481.</sup> Ibid: śl. 23b: "jñānayogo jitasvāntaih pariśuddhātmani sthitih" 482. Ibid: śl.24a: "bhaktiyogah paraikāntaprītyā dhyānādişu sthitih"

<sup>483.</sup> Ibid.: śls. 24b-25a:

<sup>&</sup>quot;trayanamapi yoganam tribhiranyonyasangamah nityanaimittikānām ca parārādhanarūpinām"

<sup>484.</sup> Ibid: śl. 25b: "ātmadṛṣṭeḥ trayo'pyete yogadvāreṇa sādhakāḥ"

<sup>485.</sup> Ibid: śl.26:

<sup>&</sup>quot;nirastanikhilājñāno drstvātmānam parānugam pratilabhya parām bhaktim tayaivāpnoti tatpadam"

<sup>486.</sup> Ibid: śls. 27 and 28.

acts, from the enjoined ones upto bhakti, out of mere disinterested love for the Supreme. He should also give up the notion that these various activities are the means (upāya or sādhana) to mokṣa. Rather, he should consider the Lord Himself as the means thereof.

The Lord can be attained by one who takes pleasure in serving Him exclusively and for all time. In conclusion, Yāmuna points out that the text of the  $Bhagavadg\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  is mainly concerned with a man of the above description.<sup>487</sup>

# (d) The Āgamaprāmāṇya

The next work under study, the  $\bar{A}gamapr\bar{a}m\bar{a}nya$ , is devoted to establish the revealed character (apauruseyatva) of the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra-\bar{a}gama$  literature. The fact that Yāmuna had to write this indicates that the Pańcarātra was subjected to serious criticisms regarding its authenticity. The celebrated  $Mim\bar{a}msaka$ ,  $Kum\bar{a}rilabhatta$  condemned Pańcarātra as non-Vedic<sup>488</sup> and the commentary of Śańkarācārya on the Pańcarātrādhikaraṇa<sup>489</sup> pointed out the opposition between certain of its philosophical tenets and those of the Vedānta. So the situation demanded a thorough scholastic approach, and it is in reply to all such critics that Yāmuna wrote the  $\bar{A}gamapr\bar{a}m\bar{a}nya$ .

In this work, Yāmuna answers the queries raised by the Bhāṭṭas, the Prābhākaras and Advaitins regarding the validity of Pāñcarātra. The Naiyāyika's position with regard to Āgama is also introduced here; for all practical purposes, it is identical with that of the Siddhāntin. The Siddhāntin, although he claims

total validity for the  $\bar{A}gamas$  on the ground of their being the composition of an Omniscient and Supreme Creator-God, differs from the Naiyāyika in maintaining that the Vedas are impersonal in character (apauruseya), that is to say, that they were not composed by any person, human or divine. It may be noted that he, unlike the Naiyāyika, holds that the means of proving the existence of God is not Inference  $(anum\bar{a}na)$  but sruti itself. These are the two main differences between the  $Siddh\bar{a}ntin$  and the Naiyāyika, so far as the validity of the  $\bar{A}gamas$  is concerned.

The following is a brief account of the arguments advanced by the critics of the Pańcarātra school and their refutation by Yāmuna. Followers of this school claim authority for their Āgamas in toto on the ground that they are the direct unterances of Lord Vāsudeva. So, naturally, the Mīmāmsaka (Bhāṭṭa), who upholds the sole authority of the Veda and who denies the existence of a Supreme Person, becomes the adversary whom Yāmuna has to tackle first.

## The Bhātta-Mimāmsaka's Criticism

The Mimāmsaka, first of all, examines the source of these  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra-\bar{a}gamas$ .

The Pañcarātra, like the Agama of any other school speaks of a certain thing as the  $summum\ bonum$  of life and prescribes a number of rites like  $d\bar{\iota}ks\bar{a}$  (Initiation) and  $\bar{a}r\bar{a}dhana$  (worship) of the Lord as the means thereof. This cause-and-effect relationship between the rites and the resulting heaven, etc., cannot, according to the  $M\bar{\iota}m\bar{a}\dot{m}saka$ , be verified by any means of knowledge.

Ocular perception (pratyaksa), however powerful it might be, has to obey its own natural laws, and so it cannot reveal the desired causal connection that subsists between these rites and heaven, etc. Here, the Mīmāmsaka attacks the theory of the supremacy of a certain Person, advanced by the Naiyāyikas in support of the above argument. According to the Mīmāmsaka, there does not exist any person possessing unlimited power,

<sup>487.</sup> Vide GS. sls. 29-32:

<sup>&</sup>quot;jñānī tu paramaikāntī tadāyattātmajīvanaḥ tatsamslesaviyogaikasukhaduḥkhas tadekadhīḥ bhagavaddhyānayogoktivandanastutikīrtanaiḥ labdhātmā tadgataprāṇamanobuddhīndriyakriyaḥ nijakarmādi bhaktyantam kuryāt prītyaiva kāritaḥ upāyatām parityajya nyaset deve tu tāmabhīḥ ekāntātyantadāsyaikaratis tatpadmāpnuyāt tatpradhānamidam śāstramiti gītārthasangrahaḥ"

<sup>488.</sup> See Tantra Vārtika pp. 114, 115.

<sup>489.</sup> See Brahmasūtra: II. ii. 42-45.

knowledge, etc., who presides over this entire universe. Even if such a wide perception is accepted, he argues that it cannot be proved that that perception alone realised the desired causal connection between Initiation and heaven, etc. The Mīmāmsaka thus rules out the possibility of *yogic pratyakṣa* being a means of understanding the above relation.

Inference (anumāna), likewise, is stated to be incapable of establishing the desired relationship between the means and the end, because the knowledge of invariable concomitance, which is the source of anumāna, is absent here. Nobody can know the invariable relationship that exists between Initiation and heaven, where heaven happens to lie beyond the scope of human perception.

The Mimāmsaka then observes that there is no Vedic statement  $(\bar{a}gama)$  which preserves injunctions stating that Initiation is instrumental to heaven.  $\bar{A}gamas$  are of two types: those connected with human beings as their works and those for which there is no author at all. Of these, the first type of  $\bar{a}gamas$  is not authoritative, since it is, after all, the composition of human beings who are subject to passions like love and hatred and are therefore, prone to err. As for the second type, there is no revealed text that is in favour of the desired causal connection. Thus the Mimāmsaka states that there is no text which can reveal the  $s\bar{a}dhyas\bar{a}dhana$  relation between the rites these  $\bar{A}amas$  ordain, and the fruits that are said to accompany the performance of those rites.

Comparison (*upamāna*), the next means of knowledge, too, cannot reveal this relationship. Comparison takes place between two objects well-known. Since the original Vedic text is itself not known here, comparing another statement with it is highly impossible.

The next pramāṇa examined by the Mīmāṁsaka is circumstantial Presumption (arthāpatti). This is also found to be not helpful in establishing the desired relationship. 'Incompatibility' which forms the source of this pramāṇa, is absent in the present case. Again the Āgamas cannot stand comparison with Manusmṛti and such other works, in whose case arthāpatti-

pramāṇa is applied. Moreover, the aphorism "api vā kartṛṣāmānyāt..." of Jaimini, which the Pāńcarātrins try to press into service to uphold the validity of their Ågamas, sanctions authority only to smrti-works like those of Manu and others, but not to works like the Pāñcarātrāgamas. Smrtis obtain validity only when the rites enjoined by them are performed by those who also perform the other Vedic rites, as for instance, the sandhyāvandana (saluting the Twilight). But the rites ordained by the Pāñcarātra works are not at all performed by those who carry out the Vedic rites. At the same time, those who follow these Tāntric practices are severely condemned by the Vedic people, and hence it is beyond all doubt that these Agamas are non-Vedic.

The Mīmāmsaka then states that the followers of these Agamas who are called Bhāgavatas<sup>491</sup> are not Brahmins at all. They, no doubt, maintain knots of hair and other Brahmanical marks, but this is no indication of their true caste.<sup>492</sup> Such marks are found even on the bodies of the sūdras, who try to delude the people about their true nature.

The *Bhāgavatas* are also called *Sāttvatas*. This different terminology, however, cannot be explained as due to some social distinction of these people, on the analogy of the two terms, 'brāhmaṇa' and 'parivrājaka'. These *Sāttvatas*, along with sudhanvā, ācārya and others, are said to belong to a particular community called the vaisya-vrātya community.<sup>493</sup>

<sup>490.</sup> PM. I. iii. 2 : "api vā kartrsāmānyāt pramāṇamanumānam syāt"

<sup>491.</sup> IP. I. p. 497:

<sup>&</sup>quot;The followers of the Pańcaratra were apparently not allowed originally to adopt the Vedic forms of worship..."

<sup>492.</sup> PPM. p. 101:

<sup>&</sup>quot;Kumārila and Prabhākara alike, do not admit of such 'jātis' as 'brāhmaṇatva', 'kṣatriyatva' and the like, all of which cannot be perceived by the senses. What is meant by calling a man 'Brāhmaṇa' is not that he belongs to any such 'jāti', but only that he is descended from a particular line of ancestors. The purity of descent has to be accepted until there is sufficient proof to the contrary".

<sup>493.</sup> MS. X. 23 : "vaiśyāttu jāyate vrātyāt sudhanvā "cārya eva ca bhāruṣaśca nijaṅghaśca maitrassāttvata eva ca"

It is to this outcaste-community that the term Sattvata conventionally refers. Etymology may, however, allow the term Sāttvata, to mean the devotee of the Lord, as opposed to the conventional sense. But the Mimamsaka, citing the rathakāranyāya, 494 states that when both the etymological and conventional significances are applicable in one and the same place, it is only the conventional sense that has to be preferred to the etymological. Thus, he states that here too, the term Sāttvata should be taken only in its conventional sense, referring to the particular vaisya-vrātya community mentioned to above.

The Mimāmsaka then identifies these Bhāgavatas with Sāttvatas on the similarity of their activities, as for example, worshipping in temples for livelihood, administering Initiation, living by the food offered to the Lord (naivedva), performing sacraments like garbhādhāna—not in the familiar Vedic way, but in an entirely different and peculiar way—using the nirmālaya of the Lord, etc. Again, these Bhāgavatas are identified with Devalakas, on the evidence of many smrtis, since they are found to trade in image-worship, which is spoken of as the means of livelihood for the Devalakas. So it is concluded that the Pañcaratra which is professed by these Bhāgavatas who are clearly outside the pale of the Vedas, cannot lay claims to any authority.

The Mimāmsaka then examines the internal evidence of these Agamas. He takes up the statement found in one of these Agamas: "Śāndilya took to a study of these Agamas being unable to achieve the highest good in all the four Vedas". This, he says. discloses the nature of these texts, since it under-estimates the instrumentality of even the Vedas with regard to salvation.

Even on the side of instruction, the  $D\bar{\imath}k\bar{\imath}a$  (Initiation) that these Agamas enjoin on a man to qualify him to worship the Lord. it is argued, is a clear mark of the non-Vedic character of these texts. Upanayana, the Vedic sacrament, is sufficient for this. But still, these  $\bar{A}gamas$  require  $d\bar{i}ks\bar{a}$  over and above the general upanayana, and this is enough to indicate their non-Vedic nature.

Again, these Agama-texts do not find a place in the wellrecognised traditional list of the fourteen branches of knowledge (vidyāsthāna), consisting of the four Vedas, their six accessories. the Mīmāmsā, the Nyāya, the Purāna and the Dharmasāstra. 495 accepted as authorities on matters of Dharma.

The Mimämsaka, however, admits that the Agamas enjoin worship of the Lord, which one may mistake for indicating their Vedic nature. These and similar other instances, he warns, should not be taken as indicating the true nature of these texts. They are merely hypocritical. This is so because, these texts, at a number of places, also pour down instructions regarding mundane practices like charming persons and exorcising evil spirits. Also "there is too much black magic and superstition" 496 in them. These instructions are calculated only to delude the common people. They are not in keeping with the spirit of a text purporting to be based on the Vedas. Therefore, even a stray case of ordaining worship should rightly be regarded as hypocritical. The correct conclusion is that these Agamas are not Vedic.

The Vedas, according to the Mimāmsaka, are apauruseya, without an author. The Naiyāyika, however, argues that even Vedas have an author, being the work of Iśvara, the Omniscient Lord, since they consist of sentences (vākya) which would ultimately point to an author. This author could not be human, since the Vedas deal with supra-mundane results like heaven which are outside the ken of human beings. The Mīmāmsaka refutes this argument. According to him, this reasoning would ultimately result in the authorship of only a human being possessing a physical body and limited knowledge, but not in the desired authorship of an Omniscient Lord. It is well-known that physical body is only the result of the previous merit and demerit of a particular being. This position, therefore, does not apply to the divine authorship of the Vedas. If it would apply, it would directly affect the authoritative character of the Vedas themselves. Dharma, which lies beyond the scope of the ordinary

<sup>495.</sup> YS. I-3:

<sup>&</sup>quot;purānanyāvamīmāmsādharmasastrangamisritāh vedāssthānāni vidyānām dharmasya ca caturdaśa"

<sup>496.</sup> IP. I. p. 499.

means of knowledge, cannot be revealed by  $v\bar{a}kyas$  composed by human beings.

Regarding creation and dissolution of this world, the Mimāmsaka is of the view that they are not instantaneous operations. "Prabhākara and Kumārila alike, deny absolutely the validity of the belief in the periodic creation and dissolution of all things. They accept a constant process of becoming and passing away..." Thus, for instance, the Prābhākara, "though he admits that the universe is made of constituent parts, and that as such it must have a beginning and an end in time, yet he finds no reason for believing that the universe, as a whole, had a beginning at any one point of time, or that it would all come to an end at any one point. Hence, if the constituent factors of the universe have a beginning, they must also cease one after the other; in fact, this is what is actually found to be the case in everyday experience". 498 Creation of the earth, for instance, therefore, means a gradual but not simultaneous accumulation of mass, and dissolution, likewise, is a gradual reduction of it.

Continuing, the Mimamsaka says that a Supreme Being need not at all be postulated to account for entities like the hills, the earth and the oceans which we see. We, the human beings (jīvas) who are intelligent, could ourselves produce these entities through sacrifices, and as such, no postulation of a divine agent is justified. It may be argued that a Supreme Person is to be assumed who can perceive the apūrva or the unseen merit that arises out of the performance of acts (sacrifices) and which the human beings cannot decidedly see. This argument, according to the Mimāmsaka, is only superficial. Human beings are not directly connected with the perception of the apūrva, which is only the instrumental cause of things. It is enough if they understand the efficacy of the rites they perform. They get a knowledge of the productive capacity (sakti) of those rites through a study of the Vedas. This they can do, since they are endowed with intelligence. This is supported by the critic by citing the analogy of a potter who only understands the efficiency

of the clay, the stick etc., but cannot have a direct perception of their productive capacity.

He then attacks the Naiyāyika's view that the entities obtaining in the world are liable to destruction on the ground that they consist of parts. All entities like the earth and the Sun. according to the Mimāmsaka, are eternal. The eternal character of these things is proved by the means of knowledge called Recognition (pratyabhijñā), which is a variety of ocular Perception (pratyaksa) and hence, is more powerful and valid than Inference (anumāna). Recognition is of this type: "That earth (which the people of the past witnessed) is verily this (which I now see before me)" and "That Sun is verily this", etc. People who lived in the past must have had similar recognitions with regard to these and other entities, and people who live in future will also have similar recognitions. There is thus a continuity of knowledge regarding these things during all periods of time past, present and future. This, argues the Mimāmsaka, proves that these entities are eternal.

Again, he criticises the Nyāya-theory that an agent for this universe can be inferred, who is possessed of qualities like lordship and omniscience and who, at the same time, is devoid of a physical body. Referring to worldly experience, he says that every entity that is produced points to an agent, a human being, who is found to be dependent, and to possess limited knowledge and a physical body. So the Creator of the world would necessarily have to be in possession of a physical body. If this is admitted, then it would naturally follow that his body is also liable to destruction like any other physical body, being composed of parts. So, the inference of a Supreme Being as Creator for this universe is quite untenable. 499

The critic further argues that the knowledge of invariable concomitance (vyāpti), which is the very life of anumāna

<sup>497.</sup> KM. p. 61.

<sup>498.</sup> PPM. p. 87. See Ślokavārtika, Sambandhākṣepaparihāra, śls. 47, 68 and 113, where creation and dissolution of the universe are denied.

<sup>499.</sup> PPM. p. 87: "As the Naiyāyika bases his argument on the analogy of the carpenter supervising and guiding the making of wooden articles, and as this carpenter is a bodied being, the analogy, extended a little further, would prove this supervising 'God' also to be a bodied being; but at the same time we know that no bodied being can exercise any intelligent control over such subtle things as the atoms, Dharma and Adharma".

(Inference), should not stop merely at pointing to an intelligent agent. All the particularities associated with the agent, like his possession of a physical body, limited knowledge, etc., which are understood along with invariable concomitance, should also be taken into account, without any exception.

He then launches his attack against the creative and other activities of the Supreme Person inferred by the Naivāvika. 500 An agent in general is found to be present at a particular place and do a bit of work at a particular time, with the necessary instruments, and with a view to achieving some fruit. When this is our practical experience, it is difficult for us to imagine an ultramundane God engaged in creating, maintaining and destroying the entire universe, without any appointed place and time, and that too, for no purpose at all, since it is declared that all the desires of that Creator-God are fully realised by Him. Even if it is admitted that there exists such a Lord who does all this, the motive behind His activities cannot be explained. It cannot be out of mere sport  $(kr\bar{\iota}d\bar{a})$  that the Supreme Being is doing all this, since it is known that He is already happy, with all His desires realised. If to create is His nature which cannot be overcome, it only means that the Lord has no independence. He creates, maintains and destroys the universe restlessly, without a definite plan of His own, being impelled by His own irresistible nature to create. But if it is said that He creates the beings out of pure mercy, then the actual state of affairs obtaining in the creation proves the contrary. Many of the beings are not happy, and they should have been created happy, if the Creator were merciful. If

the individual's past karman is itself held responsible for his misery, then again, the independence of the Creator-God gets impaired. So, the Mimāmsaka declares that there could be no person who creates the world<sup>501</sup> with a direct knowledge of dharma and adharma and who could also compose the Vedas.

YAMUNA'S CONTRIBUTION TO VIŚISTADVAITA

He then examines the claim that the Pancaratra-texts are as valid as the Vedas themselves, on the ground that they both are the compositions of God. He reiterates his stand that the Vedas are not composed by any person, human or divine. Revealed as they are, their authority is unquestioned. They are eternal since their author is not at all remembered, while he deserves to be remembered. Such is not the case with works like the Rāmāyana and the Mahābhārata, whose authors like Vālmīki and Vyāsa deserve to be remembered and are also remembered. Since such a remembrance of the author is absent in the case of Vedas, it is to be admitted without further hesitation that the Vedas are not written by anybody. The author of the Pāńcarātraworks, on the other hand, is known to be Vasudeva. After an impartial consideration of these facts, one would be forced to admit that these Agamas are not eternal or revealed, and that they do not deserve comparison with the eternal Vedas in respect of authority.

He then draws a distinction between the Vedas and the Agamas. The chief characteristic of the Vedas is that they consist of sentences which have got a particular sequence (krama). The sentences cannot be changed of their sequence by persons that may, from time to time, repeat them. But in the case of the Pāńcarātra-texts, there being no such rigid sequence, people may

<sup>500.</sup> KM. pp. 62-63: "Kumārila ridicules the idea of the existence of Prajāpati before creation of matter; without a body, how could he feel desire? If he possessed a body, then matter must have existed before his creative activity and there is no reason to deny then, the existence of other bodies. Nor is there any intelligible motive for creation; granted that, when the world exists, conditions are regulated by merit and demerit, originally there was no merit or demerit, and the creation of a world full of misery was inexcusable, for it is idle to argue that a creator could only produce a world in which there is sin and pain. Yet, if his action is conditioned, he cannot be omnipotent. If, again it is alleged that the creation was for his amusement, this contradicts the theory that he is perfectly happy, and would involve him in much wearisome toil".

<sup>501.</sup> Ibid. p. 64:

<sup>&</sup>quot;Though the existence of a creator is denied, the Mimamsa accepts without reserve the doctrine of the existence of the self or soul and Sabarasvāmin elaborates the case for its existence; Prabhākara and Kumārila both develop the theme in close accordance with his view. The necessity of the existence of the self for the Mimämsä rests on its fundamental assumption that the sacrifices are performed to secure, in many cases, a reward not in this life. There must, therefore, be an eternal entity, distinct from the body, the sense-organs, and cognitions, which is both the doer of actions and the reaper of their reward."

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effect changes in their sequence, at their own free will. This sequence is itself enough, argues the Mimāmsaka, to distinguish the *Vedas* from the Pāncarātra.

He then turns his attention to the contention of the Pāńcarātrins that the author of their Agamas is the Omniscient Lord and that His Omniscience is not due to any of the wellknown means of knowledge but that it is quite natural with Him. The critic points out that it is quite unreasonable to say that a person could get knowledge even without a proper study of the Vedas and such other texts. Further, there is no Vedic statement<sup>502</sup> to the effect that the Supreme Being became Omniscient even without the well-known means of knowledge. Even if such a text is somehow traced,503 the Mimāmsaka suggests that it should only be explained as an arthavada explanatory passage. To be clear, since the Lord is, in many cases. known to possess knowledge, etc., invariably, He is figuratively said to possess knowledge etc., naturally. This is the way of explaining such texts as eulogistic passages. Thus, the significance of such texts is always to be understood as secondary but not primary. He further points out that even if such a Person with inborn knowledge, etc., is admitted to exist, there could still be nothing to the credit or advantage of the Pāncarātra texts as such.

As a matter of fact, the Mīmāmsaka does not accept a Supreme Being as such.<sup>504</sup> God, according to him, is only that

particular term of the authoritative Vedic text (such as "agni" in the mantra "agnaye  $sv\bar{a}h\bar{a}$ "), which is itself understood to be the recipient of the offerings made in a sacrifice, in a particular context. <sup>506</sup>

Continuing the previous discussion that the author of the Pāñcarātra could not be Omniscient, the Mīmāmsaka points out that even the Pāsupata (Saiva) holds that Siva, the author of their own Agamas, is the only Omniscient Being. Similar is the case with other religious schools. All promulgators of religions, however, cannot be admitted to be Omniscient because of the divergent views held by them regarding metaphysical issues. Thus, it is difficult to state who actually is Omniscient, since scriptural texts glorify, for instance, both Siva and Vasudeva as Omniscient. The Mimāmsaka therefore concludes that the Pāñcarātra could only be the work of some deceitful person bearing the name 'Vasudeva'. Another point of discredit to the Pāñcarātra is that Vāsudeva, in the Purānas, is stated to have deceived demons by teaching them the non-Vedic systems of thought, assuming the form of Māyāmohana<sup>506</sup> and others. It is therefore proper to suppose that this Pañcarātra too, which is

<sup>502.</sup> But actually there is a Vedic text which speaks of the Lord's knowledge as natural. The Mīmāmsaka in the next sentence, meets this objection also.

<sup>503.</sup> The Bhāṭṭa has, in his mind, the Śvetāśvatara text: "na tasya kāryam karaṇam ca vidyate, svābhāviki jñānabalakriyā ca" (III. 6), which states clearly that the Lord's Knowledge, Power, etc., are natural with Him but not due to any means.

<sup>504.</sup> Vide the following extracts from KM:

<sup>&</sup>quot;The Mimārisā, in both schools, is confident that there is no question of rewards coming from the deity to whom the offerings are made; no deity is either eternal or omnipresent and there could be no assurance of it ever receiving the numerous offerings made by diverse votaries, apart from the difficulty of the deity conferring rewards." (p. 74).

<sup>&</sup>quot;Despite its emphatic denial of the existence of a Supreme Lord, the Sarvasiddhāntasangraha (VIII. 40,41) treats the end of man as to be obtained by meditation upon, and worship of the Supreme Spirit which is manifested in each man, and authors such as Apadeva and Laugākṣibhāskara declare that if the sacrifice is performed in honour of Govinda or the Creator Iśvara, it leads to the highest good, basing this assertion on the authority of the *Bhagavadgītā*." (p. 76)

<sup>&</sup>quot;It can hardly be assumed that these deities were not believed to be real by the founders of the Mīmāmsā. And there is nothing to show that Jaimini did not accept their existence. But the later doctrine, as evinced in such works as *Devatāsvarūpavicāra* of Apadeva, does not accept the validity of the descriptions of the deities given in the Purāṇas as showing the existence of such beings." (p. 78).

<sup>505.</sup> AP. p. 79: "na hi kācit jātyā devatā nāmāsti; yaiva hi haviḥpratiyogitayā pramāṇabhūtāt śabdādavagamyate, sā tatra devateti hi vassiddhāntaḥ."

<sup>506.</sup> Cf. ibid. p. 25: "māyāmohanavigraheņa hariņā....." etc. See VP. III. chs. 17-18 for this story.

his own teaching, was deliberately designed by him to delude the people. It is in consonance with this that we find the orthodox Vedic followers not observing the rites ordained by these particular Agamas.

Even granted that the Lord too studied the *Vedas* like Manu and others with a teacher, there is no need to attribute any originality to Him. It is difficult to imagine that He could understand the meaning of the *Vedas* even without the required study under the guidance of some teacher.

Another reason to suppose that these  $\bar{A}gamas$  are non-Vedic is that they are refuted by other smrti-works. The  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$ -works themselves draw a distinction between the Vedic and Tantric practices regarding one and the same rite. This distinction would be meaningless if these  $\bar{A}gamas$  are really Vedic in character.

An assessment of all the reasonings put forth above, says the Mimāmsaka in fine, would only point to the non-Vedic character of the *Pāūcarātra* system, so much so that there is no other choice than to conclude that it is purely the invention of a deceitful man.

## The Naiyāyika's Criticism

The Naiyāyika and his stand regarding the position of the *Pañcarātra* are introduced by Yāmuna next. It has already been mentioned above that Yāmuna has much in common with the Naiyāyika regarding the existence of an Īśvara, the creation, etc., of the world by Him, His authorship regarding the *Pāñcarātrāgamas*, etc.

It has been argued by the Mīmāmsaka that the Pañcarātra cannot be compared with Manusmṛti and such other works. The Naiyāyika points out that it is Manusmṛti that cannot stand comparison with these Āgamas and not the other way. These Āgamas belong to the same class to which the Vedas belong. They both are derived from one and the same source, namely, the anubhava (experience or direct perception) of the Lord. So, there is no question of these texts themselves being based on the Vedas for their authority. Just as two different smṛti-passages ordaining

the  $astah\bar{a}$  and  $\bar{a}camana$ -rites for instance, cannot be said to be mutually dependent, so with these  $\bar{A}gamas$  and the Vedas. Whatever reason one might advance in support of the contention that the Vedas are the only authority on matters of dharma, can equally be applied to the  $\bar{A}gamas$  too.

The *Vedas*, according to the Naiyāyika, are composed by *Īśvara*, the Supreme Lord. They consist of sentences ( $v\bar{a}kya$ ) which unmistakably point to the authorship of some person, who possesses a direct knowledge of *dharma* and *adharma*, instrumental to world-creation. It cannot be stated that even while being in the form of sentences, the *Vedas* need not necessarily be composed by anybody. This extreme view might even lead one to conclude that smoke can come out even without fire, which however, is absurd.

It is the Lord alone that could directly perceive dharma and adharma, which form the instrumental cause of this world. He composed the Vedas, purely as a matter of mercy towards the individual selves (jīvas) projected by Himself, so that they might be of great help to them in achieving the objects they desired. It cannot be argued that no perception can visualise dharma and adharma. The position is that unless a person of excelling power is accepted, we cannot account for the entities found in this universe. A direct knowledge of the instrumental and material causes is the chief criterion of one's becoming the agent or author of a particular thing. Dharma and adharma, whose instrumentality to this world is accepted even by the Mīmāmsaka, should necessarily be admitted to be perceived by the Lord, who could also compose the Vedas.

This may lead to the doubt whether or not entities like the earth and the hills are effects  $(k\bar{a}rya)$ . The Naiyāyika, with the help of syllogisms, tries to infer that the earth, etc. are all effects. They have parts, which help us to deduce that those entities are also destructable by the persons that know their causes. It is also possible to infer origination and destruction for all entities on the ground that they vibrate while having a manifested form.

When once these arguments establish that the earth, etc. are effects, it naturally follows that a Supreme Being, capable of

perceiving *dharma* and *adharma* pertaining to those effects, is also accepted. The Naiyāyika infers an agent for all entities in this world with the help of syllogistic statements.

It might be contended that creation and dissolution, being mere acts, can independently produce the desired effects without reference to the agency of any ultra-mundane person. But practically, argues the Naiyāyika, we know that mere insentient objects cannot produce effects independent of a sentient agent. A chisel, for instance, cannot prepare a wooden article without being operated by a carpenter. Human beings of ordinary knowledge and power cannot perceive the apūrva—the unseen potency that results from the performance of acts. That is to say, the human beings cannot become the designers of certain entities. Therefore, an Omniscient Designer-Agent of the entire universe has to be presumed. As a corollary, it should also be admitted that qualities like omniscience, detachment (vairāgya) and lordship (aiśvarya) pertain to Him. This argument is corroborated by various mantras, arthavāda-passages and Purāna-statements.

The Naiyāyika argues that there is nothing special about the so-called apauruseyatva (revealed character) of the Vedas, as advocated by the Mīmāmsakas. If this 'eternal character' of the Vedas belongs actually to the letters (varna) that go into their composition, then, the same is the case with the Pañcarātratexts, which also consist of letters. If this eternity, however, belongs to the words (pada) taken as a unit, even that would apply to these Agamas. If as the next step, this eternity is attributed to the sequence ( $\bar{a}nup\bar{u}rv\bar{\iota}$ ) in which these words occur, this contention, declares the Naiyāyika, is wrong. Sequence, as such, cannot ascribe eternity to letters. it is quite clear that sequence is, after all, the result of human utterance ( $ucc\bar{a}rana$ ). This utterance, in its turn, is not eternal because it exists so long as a man utters the words. So, sequence, which is based upon a short-lived utterance, will naturally be non-

eternal. Thus, the theory of apauruseyatva of the Vedas advocated so zealously by the Mīmāmsakas has nothing special in it, by which the Vedas might be claimed higher in status than the Pāñcarātra. The Naiyāyika concludes that both the Vedas and the Āgamas are equal in authority, being the compositions of one and the same Īśvara.

The Naiyāyika states that his arguments regarding the existence of a Superhuman Being are not mere logical speculations. They have the support of the *Upaniṣads*. Accordingly, the *Upaniṣads* state that there is Īśvara, the Supreme Being, and that He possesses qualities like Omniscience and Lordship. He created the universe and it is He that could compose the *Pāñcarātra* also. Since these *Āgamas* are the work of such a Person, it naturally follows, contends the logician, that their authority is unquestionable.

The Prābhākara Mīmāmsaka does not admit the primary validity of *Upaniṣadic* statements, which speak of entities already existing (siddha, bhūta or pariniṣthita-vastu) like the Brahman. According to him, all Vedic passages, so as to gain validity, should be explained as supplementary statements (arthavāda) speaking of something connected with a 'thing to be accomplished' (kārya). This is so because sentences that speak of an already existing thing might be merely repetitive (anuvāda) or even might go wrong at times (bādhita).

Against such a view, the Naiyāyika argues that just as a sentence speaking of 'something to be done'  $(k\bar{a}rya)$  is held authoritative by the Prābhākara, so also, a sentence that speaks of an already existing entity (siddha) should be admitted as valid by him. Sentences which speak of existing things should not be divested of their due authority. As regards the contention that a sentence referring to already existent entitites  $(bh\bar{u}taparav\bar{a}kya)$  is liable to defects, the Naiyāyika states that even a sentence devoted to the so-called  $k\bar{a}rya$  is subject to similar defects. A  $k\bar{a}rya$  like fetching of the faggots  $(samid\bar{a}harana)$  for instance, can also be revealed by other means of knowledge like perception (but not necessarily by verbal testimony or sabda), which the Prābhākara himself admits. This, says the Naiyāyika, proves that even a  $k\bar{a}rya$ -sentence might be repetitive in character  $(anuv\bar{a}da)$ .

<sup>507.</sup> Vide KM. p. 61: "The Nyāya-Vaisesika, accepting the doctrine of atoms on one hand and the periodical creation and destruction of the world on the other, had found it necessary to introduce the conception of a Creator, in order to secure in some measure a mode of bringing about the renewal and destruction of the combinations of the atoms and their connection with souls."

In the injunction, "One desirous of Heaven should perform the fire-sacrifice", reference is made to the "fire-sacrifice" (agnihotra) which is an already existing entity (siddha), but not something to be established ( $k\bar{a}rya$ ). The validity of such a sentence is admitted by the Prābhākara on the ground that these sentences are the only means of our knowledge regarding the instrumentality of the fire-sacrifices etc. towards heaven etc. The Naiyāyika states that even in the case of the Supreme Being, it is only the Upanisads that reveal His nature and there is no other  $pram\bar{a}na$  that could be applied here. So it is to be admitted that even the Upanisadic texts are valid in their own right.

The logician affirms that having a physical body, limited knowledge, etc., which are generally found among human beings, cannot at all be attributed to the Supreme Person whose omniscience, etc., are glorified by many *Upanisads*. He thus concludes that the *Pancarātra*-scriptures which owe their origination to such a Lord, have to be viewed as fully authoritative.

## The Prābhākara Mīmāmsaka's Criticism

It has already been observed that according to the Prābhākara, every Vedic statement, as a rule, should be connected with something to be accomplished through an act—a kārya, which is not revealed by other means of knowledge.

The connotation of words in general is to be arrived at solely by tracing their ultimate purport to a  $k\bar{a}rya$ . This is indeed, the process by which youngsters grasp the meaning of words not known to them. This, the Prābhākara illustrates by taking the stock-instance of the usage  $(vyavah\bar{a}ra)$  of elderly people Thus, a youngster who stands near two elderly men, notices one of them bringing a cow when the other man utters the words 'Bring the cow'  $(g\bar{a}m\ \bar{a}naya)$ , and concludes that the action of bringing the cow was the result of the former's understanding the intention of the latter, when he uttered the words. The youngster hears the man again say, 'Bring the horse'  $(asvam\ \bar{a}naya)$  and observes that as a result, a different animal is brought. When, again, the words 'Tie up the cow'  $(g\bar{a}m\ badh\bar{a}na)$  are uttered, a different

activity takes place. Thus, by noticing different actions following different utterances ( $vyavah\bar{a}ra$ ), the young boy understands what the words 'cow' and 'horse' really stand for. In all these cases, the denotation of different words, contends the Prābhākara, is invariably arrived at by connecting those words with the main theme, viz., the  $k\bar{a}rya$ , <sup>508</sup> the activity of bringing, tying, etc. in the above instances.

Another point to be noted is that the  $li\dot{n}$ —the optative and such suffixes in an injunction directly denote the  $k\bar{a}rya$ , whereas suffixes other than these denote other things connected with it, like the qualified aspirant  $(adhik\bar{a}rin)$  and the fruit (phala), in a supplementary sense.

It might be urged that even sentences which refer to matters of past  $(bh\bar{u}ta\text{-}vastu)$  like the birth of a son, become authoritative in their own right, without any reference to the so-called  $k\bar{a}rya$ . Thus, for instance, when a messenger tells a man, "A son is born to you", a bystander who does not know what

508. KM. pp. 39-40: "The essential character of the word is, in the view of Jaimini, not mere denotation, but injunction, a view which clearly stands in close relation to the doctrine that the meaning of words is largely learned by the young from the observation of intercourse among the old: one addresses the other and the other acts as a result; on says "gām ānaya", the other brings the cow. Hence, as against the Vedanta, it is denied that the essence of Vedic texts lies in the making manifest of the sole existent Brahman, and asserted that. even when this seems to be the case, the real import of the text is an injunction to meditate on the Brahman. From this view Prabhākara proceeds to develop a conclusion, which is in harmony with the view of Sabarasvāmin, that words themselves have no meaning, and obtain it only in sentences possessing injunctive clauses; "gām", by itself, is nothing but attains meaning when conjoined with "anaya", the whole then signifying generically the genus 'cow' as connected with 'bringing'. This view in this school (of Prabhākara) obtains the name of the 'theory of signification in syntactical combination' (anvitābhidhāna), in opposition to the view of Kumārila, who admits that words possess a meaning independently of combination in injunctive sentences, and whose theory accepts, therefore, 'the combination of significant terms' (abhihitanvaya). The two schools, however, are at one in holding that signification of words is a class-signification, as the theory of eternity of words demands."

actually the message is, notices that the listener feels glad only after hearing the above words. Further, the bystander, through indications like blooming of the face and horripilation exhibited by the listener, infers that the words uttered by the messenger should have conveyed to him the happy tidings of the birth of a son. This argument is unsound, says the Prābhākara, because gestures like blooming of the face and horripilation, though indicative of the pleasure of a man, need not necessarily arise from the knowledge of the birth of a son. Reasons for happiness are so manifold that it is practically impossible to decide whether the happiness exhibited by the listener of the sentence. "A son is born to you", is due only to the news conveyed by it or to something else. Proceeding on similar lines, says the Prābhākara, one can get at the meaning of other unknown words which are not found to have the kārya as their purport, and which are, however, employed in sentences belonging to the present tense. 509 The Prābhākara also advances logical alternatives to assert that only those sentences that have a bearing on kārya are valid.

The  $ap\bar{u}rva$  that arises from the performance of certain acts attains a new name, niyoga (prompting), at the hands of Prābhākara, since it acts as an incentive to the prompted person (niyojya) and makes him put forth an exertion for accomplishing the action indicated by the verbal root. "This 'kārya' or 'niyoga' is expressed neither by the verbal root nor by the injunctive affix, nor by any other word in the sentence; but it is denoted by the sentence as a whole, all other necessary factors being expressed by the several words of the sentence individually. What the sentence as a whole expresses is this niyoga as related to the promoted person expressed by one of the words in the sentence (i.e., the word signifying the result, the person desiring which is the promoted person).... and there is no doubt that of all things made known by the sentence, the niyoga is the most important, for, even though the final result has all the appearance of the most important factor, yet it is the niyoga that is realy such, because it is the direct and immediate cause of the result, and it is also the immediate effect of the action performed; and further,

because the result also has to be regarded as subservient to the niyoga, in view of the fact that the result enters as one of the factors necessary for the making up of the full character of the nivoga. To explain, the nivoga cannot be a true nivoga, until there is a niyojya, the person to be prompted to exertion: without exertion there can be no niyoga, and again, without the agent there can be no exertion; nor can an agent put forth an exertion and be a niyojya, until he is entitled to the undertaking resulting from that exertion, and lastly, it is only the person desiring the result issuing from the undertaking that is entitled to its performance; thus indirectly, through the agent, the result becomes a necessary factor in the niyoga, this relation between the nivoga and the result being similar to that between the master and servant; without the servant the master cannot be a true 'master', and yet it is the master that is the more important person of the two".510

All this is only in regard to sentences found in the Vedic texts. As regards the sentences spoken by human beings in this world the  $Pr\bar{a}bh\bar{a}kara$  dismisses their primary authority summarily on the ground that they are inferential in nature. That is to say, that their authority is to be inferred on the ground of their being spoken by reliable persons  $(\bar{a}pta)$ . 511

<sup>509.</sup> Thus, for instance, the meaning of the word "pika" in the sentence " $pikah k\bar{u}jati$ " should be obtained with the help of the next term " $k\bar{u}jati$ ". Since " $k\bar{u}jana$ " is characteristic of a cuckoo-bird, the term "pika" is to be taken as standing for the cuckoo.

<sup>510.</sup> PPM. p. 163 ff.

<sup>511.</sup> Cf. KM., pp. 41-42:

<sup>&</sup>quot;Prabhākara holds that the only authoritative testimony of things beyond the reach of the senses and other means of proof, is the scripture (sāstra). Other words deal only with matters cognised by perception, inference, etc. and have no inherent cogency. If they give us true information, it is merely because we believe the speaker to be trustworthy. Thus, like the Vaisesika, Prabhākara holds all cognition of this kind to be based on inference, the argument being 'this man says something; he must know what he is talking about; what he says, therefore, must be ture'.....Thus the sole possibility of the validity of verbal testimony lies in the Veda, which has no author, and therefore, is not vitiated by doubts as to trustworthiness and ability of correct expression....."

The Prābhākara thus asserts that there is no sentence in the Veda that refers to an already existent entity primarily and that everything should be connected with the  $k\bar{a}rya$ , so as to gain validity.

#### The Advaitin's Criticism

The next important critic introduced by Yāmuna for refutation, is the Advaitin. The Advaitic view regarding the philosophical authenticity of the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra-\bar{a}gamas$ , represented by Śankarācārya in his commentary on the  $Brahmas\bar{u}tra$  (II. ii. 42-45), is not in favour of these  $\bar{a}gamas$ .

According to the Advaitin, the entire pāñcarātrādhikarana, consisting of the four aphorisms, "utpattyasambhavāt", "na ca kartuh karanam", "vijñānādibhāve vā tadapratisedhah" and "vipratisedhācca" (Brahmasūtra: II. ii. 42-45), reflects the view of the author of the aphorisms, Bādarāyana, that the Pańcarātra is non-Vedic in character. He, accordingly, interprets these sūtras in fayour of his own line of thought.

The first aphorism, "utpattyasambhavāt", says the Advaitin, refutes the Pāñcarātra theory of origination (utpatti) of an individual self (jīva). The Pañcarātra, for instance, maintains that "from Vāsudeva, the Ultimate Reality, is born the Individual Self by name Sankarṣaṇa; from Sankarṣaṇa is born the Mind called Pradyumna; from Pradyumna again is born the Ego (ahankāra) called Aniruddha". This clearly indicates the non-Vedic character of these āgama-texts, because no orthodox text based on the Vedas, or even the Vedas themselves, speak of the origination (utpatti) or the birth of the individual self. The jīva is eternal. Even if a jīva is said to be born, it is only in a secondary sense that we have to understand this statement. 516

In the light of this discussion, the Prābhākara declares that Upanisadic statements which speak of the Brahman, an established entity, should be explained in such a way that they are only arthavāda—or explanatory passages with regard to injunctions of inana and upasana. To be clear, they should be taken as enjoining on one, the meditation of the Omniscient and Blissful Self. 512 By this, one should not, however, be led to the conclusion that there is in fact, such a person possessed of omniscience and such other perfections. 518 Even non-existing phenomena can be spoken of as existing for purposes of meditation and such is the present one. So, statements that there exists an Omniscient God and so on, are not of primary significance and God is nothing but the fabrication of fanatics. Sacrifices etc., which an agent performs are ephemeral in nature and one might think that the agent might not get the legitimate fruit of his actions if his self were not eternal. 514 Upanisadic passages which speak of the eternity of the Self, therefore, should be taken as arthavāda or corroborative passages to the above fact, assuring the fruit of one's actions to one's own self to be realised in another world.

"The Prābhākara, like the Bhātta, denies a creator for the universe, who can also know everything: If it were true that certain factors of the universe are brought into existence by an ultra-mundane Supervisor of Dharma-Adharma, this could not be true for the entire universe, as a whole. For instance, the bodies of all men and animals are found to be produced by the functioning of the parents, and not by a supervening agency; and this fact will enable us to infer the same with regard to the bodies of all animals, past and future also. The claim of the logicians that our Dharma and Adharma must have a Supervisor, with more intelligence than us, is also weak. Dharma-Adharma of the body....must always belong to the same intelligent being to whom the body belongs.....Hence the ultra-mundane 'God' can have no knowledge of Dharma and Adharma of the beings....and without such knowledge, he could not exercise any intelligent control over them; God could not perceive Dharma by His senses...nor by His mind as the mind cannot perceive..the..Dharma of beings which is outside God's body."

<sup>515.</sup> See Śaṅkara's commentary on *Brahmāsūtra* under II. ii. 42: "*utpattyasambhavāt*". It may be added that Śaṅkara concedes that there are elements in the Pāńcarātra which are acceptable such as the teaching that Nārāyaṇa is the Supreme Reality, that He has manifested. Himself in varied ways, and that He is to be worshipped through single-mined devotion.

<sup>516.</sup> See AP. p. 27.

<sup>512.</sup> See fn. 595.

<sup>513.</sup> Cf. PPM. pp. 85-86:

The body which the  $j\bar{\imath}va$  takes up at the time of his coming into this world is alone liable to birth. The  $j\bar{\imath}va$ , by virtue of his dwelling in the physical body, merely comes into contact with the subtle elements  $(m\bar{a}tra)$ . Moreover, the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$ -texts say that mind (manas), an instrument, is born out of the agent (kartr). But we find, in our experience, that an instrument like an axe, for instance, is not born out of an agent like Devadatta. We cannot understand this statement of these  $\bar{a}gamas$ , without the help of an illustration. There is also no Vedic text which supports this view.  $^{517}$ 

The next target of attack from the Advaitin is the Pāñcarātra-vyūha-theory. 518 According to the Bhāgavatas, Vasudeva, the Highest Being Himself assumes the different forms of Sankarsana, Pradyumna and Aniruddha, for the welfare of the universe. Criticising this view, the Advaitin says that if these four manifestations (vyūha) of the Supreme Being are mutually different and independent of one another, possessing common attributes and features, but are not one in essence, then the Pāńcarātrins commit the fallacy of admitting the plurality of God, which, however, contradicts their own siddhanta-view, viz., that Vāsudeva is the only Ultimate Reality. If, on the other hand, all these four manifestations are held to be one in essence, without any mutual distinction, this too is not acceptable. Sankarşana cannot be born out of Vāsudeva, nor can Pradyumna come out of Sankarsana, because there is no distinction between these different forms. But when an effect is born out of a cause, some sort of distinction must subsist between them, to render the cause-effect relation feasible, as in the case of clay and its product, a pot. In the absence of any distinction, the use of terms like "kārya" and kāraņa" becomes meaningless. But the Pāñcarātrins do not admit any distinction between the four vyūha-manifestations in respect of qualities like knowledge  $(i\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na)$  and lordship  $(ai\acute{s}varya)$  either collectively or individually. All these forms are Vāsudevas without any sort of distinction between them, hold the Bhāgavatas. There is also no restriction

to the number of forms that the Lord can assume; they need not be *four* only, for according to the Bhāgavatas, the entire universe starting from the Supreme Brahman above, down to the blade of grass on earth, is but the  $vy\bar{u}ha$  (manifestation) of the Brahman.

Another charge levelled against the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$  by the Advaitin is that there is mutual controversy over the relation that subsists between a guna (quality) and a gunin (the qualified). Thus, for instance, each of the qualities like  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  and aisvarya is itself considered as identical with Vāsudeva, the possessor thereof. Thus, these  $\bar{a}gamas$  show no distinction between a quality and its possessor. Lastly, the Advaitin points out that the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$ -texts put forth non-Vedic teaching, as is evident from the statement found in one of these  $\bar{a}gamas$ : "Śāndilya took to a study of these  $\bar{a}gamas$  being unable to get at the highest good (human end) from all the four Vedas". No text which purports to be based on the Vedas will dare to understimate the Vedas in this manner, says the Advaitin.

### The Siddhanta

The following is a brief exposition of the *Siddhānta* or the conclusion arrived at by Yāmuna in reply to the arguments advanced by his critics.

At the very outset, Yāmuna makes the following inferential statement: "The Pāńcarātra tantra is authoritative like the Vedic sentences ordaining jyotistoma, etc., on the gound that it is, like the Vedic sentences, based upon knowledge which is free from all defects". He, with all his logical skill, proves that no error can be pointed out in the above statement either with regard to the subject (paksa) or the probans (hetu), through any means of knowledge, such as perception, inference or verbal testimony. He investigates the possibility of any fallacy being pointed out in the above inferential statement and concludes that it is perfect in all respects.

<sup>517.</sup> Vide Śańkara's commentary on *Brahmasūtra* under II. ii. 43 : "na ca-kartuḥ karaṇam".

<sup>518.</sup> Vide ibid: II. ii. 44: "vijnānādibhāve vā tadapratiṣedhaḥ"

<sup>519.</sup> Cf. Śaṅkara's commentary on Brahmasūtra: II. ii. 45: "vipratiṣedhācca"

It had earlier been contended by the opponents that the validity of the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$  scriptures cannot be accepted on the ground that they were composed by Vāsudeva, a deceitful person. Defending the cause of the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$ -texts against the onslaught of the Mīmāmsaka, Yāmuna questions him as to how he would ward off the invalidity for the Vedas that can arise on the ground that they too consist of sentences like the texts of human authorship. The Mīmāmsaka would reply that the Vedas are impersonal in character (apauruseya) and that their validity in therefore unquestionable. In the same vein, Yāmuna declares that the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$  is the direct utterance of the omniscient and merciful Vāsudeva, the Lord of the universe and that for that very reason, its validity becomes unquestionable.

Clarifying his point, Yāmuna states that the validity of words is intrinsic (svatah prāmānya). Their validity gets impaired only when the people that utter them have defects like deceit and ignorance. Until it is proved beyond doubt that the man who uttered certain words is not dependable regarding the genuineness of the words uttered by him, no person is justified in doubting their validity. Since the author of the Pāñcarātra-āgamas is one that is glorified in the Upaniṣads as omniscient and merciful, there is no room for any conjecture that He had evil designs in His mind in composing these āgamas.

The crux of the problem to which the argument then turns is whether statements speaking of an already existent entity  $(bh\bar{u}ta \text{ or } siddha\text{-}vastu)$  are authoritative or not. The Mīmāmsakas, as we have already seen, do not admit of any primary validity for such statements. According to them, all statements should be connected with "something to be done"  $(k\bar{a}rya)$ , if their validity is to be admitted. Accordingly, the statement, "You have got a son"  $(putraste j\bar{a}tah)$ , is explained by them as not primarily valid, on the ground that gestures of happiness which the listener of the above statement is said to

exhibit, need not necessarily make a third man infer that they proceed from the happy tidings of a child-birth. Reasons for happiness might be many, past, present and future, and as such, the exact cause for the happiness of the man to whom the above statement is addressed, cannot be specified.

This contention of the Mīmāmsakas is turned down by the author as preposterous. The third man who listens to the above sentence addressed to another man, is still able to conclude through the signs of happiness, exhibited by him, that he heard the happy news of child's birth. The way in which he arrives at such a conclusion is this: He sees the man, soon after listening to the news, making arrangements for the jātakarman-sacrament for the new-born babe. The third man, who himself had had the occasion to perform such a sacrament when a son was born to his own self, quickly comes to the conclusion that the news heard by the man in question, must only be regarding the birth of a child. Since activity regarding the jātakarman performance is noticed in the listener only after his listening to the sentence but not before, it is proper to think that it must have been due only to the news of a child's birth.

It may be contended that the 'happy' news of child-birth and the performance of  $j\bar{a}takarman$  need not have a cause-and-effect relation on the ground that even those who cannot afford are seen to do it, with displeasure. But this argument cannot stand to reason, says Yāmuna. Even as listening to the statement "gām ānaya", is taken by the Mīmāmsakas as the cause of the activity of bringing a cow on the ground that the activity of bringing is found to take place only when the statement has been made, so also it is proper to admit that the activity of the  $j\bar{a}takarman$ -performance must have proceeded from the act of listening to the news of child-birth.

Yāmuna states that there is no justification whatsoever for the Prābhākara's contention that all words have their sole purport in 'kārya'. In statements like "gām ānaya" and "aśvam ānaya" the terms 'gauh' (cow) and 'aśvah' (horse), should be explained in their own individual capacity, without connecting them with the so-called 'kārya', points out the author. He says that it is possible to interpret terms in conjunction with factors

<sup>520.</sup> See p. 108 above.

<sup>521.</sup> It may be noted that for the Sānkhyas, validity and invalidity of statements are both insrinsic; for the Naiyāyikas, both are extrinsic; for the Buddhists, invalidity is intrinsic and validity extrinsic, and for the Vedāntins, validity is intrinsic and invalidity extrinsic.

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other than the  $k\bar{a}rya$  also. Pointing out that the Prābhākara's dictum that all connotations of words should be arrived at only in relation to a  $k\bar{a}rya$  is based upon a wrong conception of the connotation of words, Yāmuna says that this rule cannot be applied to the suffix, "lin". To explain, the optative suffix, "lin", conveys the  $k\bar{a}rya$  proper in a sentence. 'As such, how can it be said to convey its sense in relation to a  $k\bar{a}rya$ , while it itself indicates the  $k\bar{a}rya$ ?' asks Yāmuna. So, the proper way of arriving at the significance of words should be untainted by any preconceived notion either in favour of a  $k\bar{a}rya$  or a siddha. One has to admit that a word conveys its sense in relation to such other thing which is required to complete the sense which is

expected (ākānksita), which is compatible (yogya) and which is

supplied by a word uttered proximate to it (asanna). So, there

should be no special attachment to a 'Kārya' or a 'siddha-vastu'.

'Kārya' should only be taken as a subsidiary, but not the sole

cause in arriving at the connotation of words. When its function

is over, it is no longer helpful.

Yāmuna then turns to the contention of the Prābhākara that the statements made by human beings cannot be taken as valid as and when they are uttered, and that their validity can be arrived at, only after inferring the reliability of the person who made these statements, because of the fact that human speech is always open to defects like deceit and ignorance. <sup>522</sup> Yāmuna states that it is true that in a few cases, where persons are liable to have defects, the statements made by them do not attain validity. But this does not mean that words lose their denotative power which is quite natural with them. So, a listener who has

a general capacity to understand the mutual connection of words and their meanings, arrives at the sense of a particular word soon after it is heard. It is not necessary that he should infer the soundness of the source of the words first and then alone get at their sense. The author emphasises that the knowledge arising out of sentences such as "There are fruits on the river bank", which speak of an established entity (bhūtavastu), is purely verbal but not inferential.

Yāmuna also refers in this connection to the theory of nivoga advanced by the Prābhākara. 523 According to the latter, the apūrva is indicated by the Optative suffix, 'lin', in an injunction. He further says that in the injunctive sentence. "One desirous of heaven should perform the jyotistoma sacrifice", the performer (nivoiva) is qualified by 'heaven'. Refuting this argument. Yāmuna says that heaven is something that is going to be established in future, but not an already existent entity. So. it cannot become an attribute of the agent. On the other hand, the desire  $(k\bar{a}man\bar{a})$  regarding heaven, which exists at the time of activity, could alone be taken as the attribute of the person concerned. All injunctions should be understood as referring to the thing to be established  $(s\bar{a}dhya)$ , the means thereof  $(s\bar{a}dhana)$ and the cause-effect relationship between them (sambandha). It is not always true that a niyoga is ever associated with the realisation of certain fruits like heaven. In injunctions ordaining obligatory rites, for instance, the niyoga has no connection with the realisation of a corresponding result. So, the proper way of understanding an injunctive sentence is that the optative and other affixes first make an agent understand that the performance of a particular rite leads to a particular result. Then the agent, motivated by desire regarding the result, exerts. There is nothing contradictory in admitting that words, referring to existent factors (siddha-vastu) even in ordinary parlance, become valid in their own right.

Yāmuna points out that *Upanisads* which speak of the Supreme Being, should therefore be treated as authoritative, since they give us a correct knowledge regarding the Lord, a knowledge that is free from all defects.

<sup>522.</sup> Vide KM. p. 42: "There is an obvious difficulty in this reasoning of Prabhākara when it is rembered that Prabhākara....insists on the self-evidence of cognitions, from which it would seem to follow that the assertions of any man are prima facie valid, until sublated by better evidence. Kumārila, who is always anxious to accommodate the views of the school to popular beliefs, is at the same time more in harmony with the tenets of the school in adopting a doctrine, which does not involve the general denial of the validity of human testimony. He adopts therefore, the plan of distinguishing testimony as human and superhuman (apauruseya).....In the case of human testimony, its validity may be impaired by defects in the speaker, but the presence of excellencies in him precludes the presence of defects".

<sup>523.</sup> See p. 114 f. above for the theory of niyoga.

As regards the contention of the Mimāmsakas that Upanisads are not primarily valid on the ground that they speak of a siddha-vastu, the Brahman, the author argues in favour of the validity of the siddhapara-statements, like the Naiyāyika. Defects of repetition  $(anuv\bar{a}da)$  and contradiction to facts (viparyaya), which the Mimāmsakas point out in the case of existing factors can also be applied to statements speaking of  $k\bar{a}rya$ , says Yāmuna. It is asserted that all types of knowledge are valid in their own right provided they are free from defects like doubt and falsehood and also that no distinction should be made in terms of something to be accomplished through action  $(k\bar{a}rya)$  and something that already exists (siddha).

Yāmuna criticises the Bhātṭa view that omniscience is beyond all possibility. The author states that this view is directly opposed to the Vedic passages which speak of the Lord's Omniscience as quite natural with Him: "He sees even without eyes", 525 "The knowledge of the Lord is natural", 526 and so on. These statements should not be taken in a secondary sense as urged by the opponent because there is nothing contradictory to their primary significance.

It is argued that the existence of the Supreme Being is asserted by various *Upaniṣads* which also attribute Omniscience, Mercy, etc, to Him. Once the Lord is thus proved to exist, it follows that the *Pañcarātra*-scriptures which depend upon Him for their origination are undoubtedly valid.

The next discussion is as to who actually is the Highest Deity glorified in the *Upanisads*. Our author declares that Vāsudeva is the Highest Being of the *Upanisads*; He creates, maintains and dissolves the universe and he is Omniscient and merciful. Yāmuna quotes several passages from the *Mahābhārata*, the *Viṣnupurāṇa*, the *Lingapurāṇa*, the *Varāhapurāṇa* and the *Manusmṛti*, in support of his view. Rudra and other gods cannot

be supreme because they are known to have birth, etc. Texts which seem to glorify them as supreme should be taken in a secondary sense since they are contradicted by direct Vedic assertions which make it clear that Viṣṇu alone is the Highest Person. The supremacy of Vāsudeva is emphasised by quotations from  $Pur\bar{a}nas$  like the Matsya, the  $V\bar{a}yu$ , the Bhavisyat and the  $Var\bar{a}ha$ . The part where Yāmuna deals with the question of the Supremacy of Nārāyaṇa<sup>627</sup> may be studied with special interest because the Purusanirnaya, another work of our author, entirely devoted to the same question and to which he himself refers here, <sup>628</sup> is no longer available.

Vāsudeva who had a direct comprehension of the instrumentality of  $D\bar{\imath}ks\bar{a}$  (Initiation) etc., to salvation, taught the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tr\bar{a}gamas$  to sages like  $N\bar{a}rada$  and  $S\bar{a}ndilya$ . These  $\bar{a}gamas$  ordain worship to Him as the only means of attaining the highest bliss. But the Saivite  $\bar{a}gamas$  ordain non-Vedic practices like "knowing the correct significance of the 'six symbols'  $(mudrik\bar{a}satka)$ " and "wearing them"  $(taddh\bar{a}rana)$  as the means of salvation. They also clearly declare that moksa cannot be attained through the knowledge regarding Brahman. These and such other factors are directly opposed to scriptures which speak of Brahman as the source of the highest bliss. Therefore, there could be no doubt regarding the non-Vedic character and the consequent invalidity of the  $Saiv\bar{a}gamas$ , says Yāmuna.

Yāmuna further points out that the Purāṇas declare that Rudra deluded people by propounding non-Vedic doctrines like the Ārhata. So the source of the Śaiva and such other āgamas pronounded by Ruda and gods other than Viṣṇu, could only be deceit, doubt, etc., which stand in the way of admitting validity for those āgamas.

As regards the origin of the *Pāñcarātra* texts, Yāmuna states that Nārāyaṇa Who possesses a comprehensive knowledge regarding the vast Vedic literature, understood that His devotees

<sup>524.</sup> See p. 111 ff.

<sup>525.</sup> Cf. Śvetāśvatara III. 4: "paśyatyacaksuh sa śrnotyakarnah", and also Kena 1.7: "yaścaksusā na paśyati".

<sup>526.</sup> *Ibid* : III. 6 ; "na tasya kāryam karaṇam ca vidyate svābhāvikī jñānabalakriyā ca".

<sup>527.</sup> See AP: pp. 42-45.

<sup>528.</sup> Ibid: p. 45.

were unable to grasp and retain its meaning. Then, out of mercy, He gave them the *Pañcarātra Samhitās* through sages like Nārada and Śāndilya; and these *Samhitās* bring out in an abridged form the very essence of the Vedic teaching.

Then the author turns to the argument that the  $Pa\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$  is non-Vedic since it ordains  $D\bar{\imath}ks\bar{a}$  over and above the Upanayana sacrament for performing worship in temples. Yāmuna replies that it is not a non-Vedic mark. Special sacraments are ordained as and when necessary, to qualify one to perform particular duties. Thus, for instance, even for the performance of the jyotistoma rite, a special  $D\bar{\imath}ks\bar{a}$  is ordained by the injunction, " $\bar{a}gn\bar{a}vaisnavamek\bar{a}dasa-kap\bar{a}lam$  nirvaped  $d\bar{\imath}ksisyam\bar{a}nah$ , 529 on a person who had already been initiated by the upanayana. But this cannot be put forth as the cause for the non-authoritative character of the above Vedic passage.

With regard to the argument that the *Pañcarātra* is non-Vedic on the ground that it is not enumerated as one among the fourteen sources of knowledgé, <sup>530</sup> it has been replied that on such a consideration, even the *Rāmāyaṇa* and *Mahābhārata* of great sages like Vālmīki and Vyāsa would be liable to the same defect of non-Vedic character, because they too are not included in the traditional list of the fourteen sources of knowledge.

The next discussion is about the alleged condemnation of these  $\bar{a}gamas$  by Bādarāyaṇa, in his  $Brahmas\bar{u}tra$ . The point to be kept in mind here is that Yāmuna does not hold Bādarāyaṇa, the author of the  $Brahmas\bar{u}tra$ , to be different from Vyāsa, the author of the  $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ . According to him, both are identical. Thus he states that it is not possible to imagine Bādarāyaṇa refuting the Bhāgavata religion in his  $Brahmas\bar{u}tra$ ,

which he himself commends in glowing terms in his  $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ , as the very essence of the four Vedas. Yāmuna quotes many passages from the  $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$  in support of his view.

The four aphorisms comprising the 'utpattyasambhava' or the 'Pāñcarātra' section of the Brahmasūtra (II. ii. 39-42)<sup>532</sup> are then explained after a refutation of the interpretation offered by the Advaitins. The Advaitins hold that all the four aphorisms refute the Pañcarātra. They take a passage from one of the āgamas: "From Vāsudeva is born the individual self called Sankarsana; form Sankarsana is born the mind (manas) called Pradyumna", etc., and point out that this is a clear indication of the non-Vedic character of these agamas, since the self which is birthless is said to be born. Against this and such other arguments, Yāmuna states that there is nothing in these Āgamas that contradicts Vedic conceptions. He takes the first two aphorisms as giving the pūrvapakṣa-view and the last two as declaring the siddhanta, the heart of the Sūtrakara. The passage quoted above by the Advaitins does not state that a jīva is liable to birth, etc., or that an instrument (mind) is born out of an agent (kartr). Terms like 'jīva' and 'manas' used here point to the superintending deities over those entitites, having a particular form. Nowhere do the Pāñcarātra-āgamas say that the jīva and manas are born. Mind and such other sense-faculties are born out of the Brahman Himself according to the Upanisads, and the Pāñcarātra-texts themselves clearly accept this view. So, one has to take the Pāńcarātra to be as valid as the Upanisads themselves. The passage in question does not, as contended by the adversary, state that there are many Lords, each independent of the other, since the Pancaratra declares on the other hand. that there is no plurality of Lords and that Vasudeva is the only source of the entire world-manifestation. 533 The Lord, out of mere

<sup>529.</sup> Quoted by Śabara in his commentary under PM: XII. i. 25.

<sup>530.</sup> See p. 101 above, for this argument.

<sup>531.</sup> Whether Bādarāyaṇa, the author of the *Brahmasūtra* is the same as Vyāsa, the author of the *Mahābhārata*, or a different person, is a matter of controversy. See in this connection, an article entitled "Is Vyāsa the same as Bādarāyaṇa", by Śri P.V. Subramanya Sastri, *Journal of Sri Venkateswara Oriental Research Institute* (Vol. VII.) pp. 176-179.

<sup>532.</sup> The  $s\bar{u}tra$ -number given here is according to the  $\acute{S}r\bar{b}h\bar{a}sya$  of Rāmānuja. According to Śaṅkara, the number of these  $s\bar{u}tras$  would be II. ii. 42-45. While giving the  $P\bar{u}rvapaksa$ -view, we adopted the number according to Śaṅkara. We adopt here the number followed by Rāmānuja in the  $Siddh\bar{a}nta$ .

<sup>533.</sup> Though it is Vāsudeva that manifests Himself as Sankarṣana, Pradyumna and Aniruddha, there is nothing to indicate that He is equal with the other three. He is considered to be the Highest and the most important of all these forms. The statement of the  $Ahirbudhnya\ Samhit\bar{a}$ 

sport, manifests Himself in four different forms and protects the world. We have to accept that these manifestations are as genuine and purposeful as the other manifestations of Viṣnu, such as Rāma, Lakṣmaṇa, Bharata and Śatrughna.<sup>534</sup>

The above argument is purely from the standpoint of a Pāńcarātrin. It will be highly interesting to note that, after all, the Pāńcarātra did not fail to appeal to some noble thinkers, even among the followers of Śańkara. It appears that Śańkara's attack on the Pāńcarātra-vyūha-theory could not convince his own followers. A section of the Advaitins held that the Pāńcarātra theory of the origination of the jīva, manas, etc., should not be understood literally and primarily. On the other hand, it should be taken in a secondary sense (gauṇa). The Advaitin who held this view was Amalānanda Sarasvatī, the famous author of the commentary called the "Vedāntakalpataru" on the Bhāmatī of Vācaspatiśmira, which, in its turn, is a commentary on Śańkara's Brahmasūtrabhāsya.

ch. 36: śl. 65b, "gunapradhānabhāvastu rāmāderiva yujyate", deserves to be noted. Vāsudeva is the main form, to which the rest are subordinate and complementary. *Cf. ibid.* ch. 53:

"vyūhatrayasya bhavati kālena kalanam sadā, bhagavān vāsudevastu na vyūho nāpi kālavān vyūhatrayamapekṣyaiva kālavyūhanirūpanam kālenāmānataścāyamamitadyutirucyate" (śls. 11b-13a) "vyūhatritayapūrvatvāt pradhānah paripaṭhyate saṅkarṣaṇādimūrtyantam aśeṣabhuvanam yataḥ bibhartyādhārabhāvena vyāpnotyantaśca tat svayam" (18a-19). Also cf. *ibid*: ch. 55: śl. 29: "saṅkarṣaṇādirūpeṇa vyūhyātmānam tridhā sthitaḥ

tattadāśritakāryāya yo vibhussarvatomukhaḥ" It is thus clear that the criticism that the *Pāñcarātra-vyūha* 

theory admits plurality in the Godhead is baseless.

534. This explanation of Yāmuna is quite in accordance with the Pāñcarātra texts. Cf. AS. 36. 64-65:

"pratitretāyugam devah sādhutrāṇakṛte harih rāmalakṣmaṇaśatrughnabharatādyātmanā svayam caturdhāvasthitah tadvat cakrātmā harireva hi guṇapradhānabhāvastu rāmāderiva yujyate" Amalānanda advances the following argument in support of the Pāńcarātra-āgamas and their Vyūha-theory:

"The Pañcaratra-agamas were intentionally composed by Lord Vasudeva. But the fact that He is omniscient (that is to say that His compositions are valid in toto) is known only through the Vedas, which are, so to say, the voluntary revelations by Lord Vāsudeva (niśśvasitam śrutih). Thus, the Pāncarātra texts, for their own validity, depend upon a Vedic statement to the effect that their author Vasudeva is Omniscient, whereas the Vedas. being eternal in character, do not require anything else to prove their validity. Their validity is thus intrinsic (svatah). Now we read from the *Pāñcarātra* works that a '*iīva*' is born, whereas the Vedic texts declare that a 'iīva' is not born. In such a case. it is the Vedic texts with intrinsic validity that establish themselves first, prior to the agama-text. So we have to attach primary significance to the Vedic doctrine of the non-origination of the individual self and secondary significance (gauna) to the āgama-doctrine of the origination of the individual self. In the face of opposition from the Veda, the  $\bar{a}gama$  gets only a secondary position regarding validity. But there is no question of the agama statements being based on delusion (na tu bhrāntam).

These  $\bar{a}gamas$  were composed by Vāsudeva, the Divine Being and His omniscience is attested by the Vedas themselves. The promulgators of other schools of thought like Kapila (of Sānkhya) and Patańjali (of Yoga) on the other hand, were human beings and hence were susceptible to err. So, there cannot be any comparison between the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra-\bar{a}gamas$  and the texts of other schools of thought. It is no doubt stated in some Purāṇas that Lord Vāsudeva appeared as the Buddha and deluded people through non-Vedic preachings. But there is no proof as such, of any Purāṇic text delaring that the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$  too was intended by the Lord to delude the world  $(vy\bar{a}moh\bar{a}rtham)$ ".

The relevant portion of Amalānanda's commentary is worth quoting in full: 535

<sup>535.</sup> See Śānkarabhāṣya with Bhāmatī, Vedāntakalpataru and Kalpataru-parimala, edited by Mm. Anantakrishṇaśāstrin, re-edited by Bhārgava śāstrin and published by Pandurang Jawaji, Bombay, (1938). Vide Amalānanda's commentary on the aphorism: "utpattyasambhavāt" (Brahmasūtra II. ii. 42), p. 573.

"Pańcarātrakartur Vāsudevasya vedādeva sarvajňatvāvagamāt kapilapataňjalyādīnām ca jīvatvāt, pańcarātrasya purāņesu buddhādi-desanāvat vyāmohārtham Īsvarapranītatvāsravanāt, na yogādyadhikaranagatārthatā; siddhāntastu—

buddipūrvakṛtiḥ pańcarātram, niśśvasitam śrutiḥ | tena jīvajanistatra siddhā, gauṇī niyamyate ||

yāvaddhi ekadeśe vedāvirodhādīśvarabuddheh vedamūlatvam, vedādvā sarvaviṣayatvam pramīyate, tāvadeva svatahpramānavedāt jīvānutpattipramitau tādrgbuddhipūrvakeśvaravacanāt na jīvotpattir-avagantum śakyate; atah pramānāpahṛtaviṣaye gauṇam tadvacanam, na tu bhrāntam pūrvapaksayukteriti".

Thus it has been proved that the *Pāñcarātra-āgamas* do not contradict Vedic doctrines. As regards the contention that these *āgamas* are contradicted by other *smṛti*-works, or by statements found elsewhere in these *āgamas* themselves, Yāmuna says that the contradiction is only apparent. The seemingly contradictory passages lose their contradiction when we keep in mind the fact that when one text is primary others become auxiliary. As such, the explanation offered by Śankara to the four aphorisms of the *Brahmasūtra* in question, is entirely against the intention of Bādarāyaṇa, who holds the *Pāñcarātra* in high esteem and that it is as valid as the *Vedas* themselves.

Yāmuna states that Bādarāyana, having refuted systems like the Nyāya and the Vaiśesika on the ground that they militate against the Vedic doctrines, takes up the question of the validity of the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$ - $\bar{a}gamas$ , because the context is such that the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$  too, like the Nyāya and the Vaiśesika may be subjected to doubts regarding validity. That is why, Bādarāyana presents doubts regarding the validity of the  $Pa\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$  in the first two aphorisms which form the  $p\bar{u}rvapakşa$  and establishes its validity in the last two aphorisms, which form the  $siddh\bar{a}nta$ . The  $p\bar{u}rvapakşa$ -view had already been given above. The conclusion arrived at is that there is nothing objectionable in speaking of the Jīva (Sankarṣaṇa) and others as being "born", since they are the Lord Himself, who is of the form of Knowledge ( $vijn\bar{a}na$ ) and who is the Source ( $\bar{a}di$ ) of the entire universe. So

it is to be admitted that Lord Vāsudeva, though One, Himself becomes the 'kāraṇa' as well as the 'kārya'.

Then he takes up the statement, "Śāndilya studied the Pāncarātra-āgamas, being unable to get the means of attaining the Highest from all the four Vedas", which had been cited by the Advaitins as an instance of the denunciation of the Vedas by the Pañcaratra-agamas. For this, the reply is given that a defamatory statement  $(nind\bar{a})$  does not intend to blame what is expressly deprecated. Its purpose lies in praising something other than what is deprecated. Thus, we should take the present passage as intended to praise the Agamas, but not to underestimate the Vedas, as alleged. Then, the correct method of construing the above passage is also pointed out. The statement does not mean that "there is no human end in the Vedas". It only means that "Śāndilya could not get at the human end which is laid down in the Vedas because of their vastness". Thus it is concluded that the purport of the agamas and the Vedas is one and the same that and there is no contradiction between them.

Yāmuna then examines the view entertained by the  $Bh\bar{a}syak\bar{a}ra^{536}$  that the  $Pa\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$  is partially non-authoritative. He says that this statement had been made by the  $Bh\bar{a}syak\bar{a}ra$  lest the weak-minded should reject the Vedas completely and take up these  $\bar{A}gamas$ , because of their easily comprehensible nature.

Yāmuna explains the aphorisms of the *Pāñcarātra-adhikarana* (II-ii-39 to 42) in different ways and for different purposes. The *sūtra*, "na ca kartuh karanam" is explained by him as speaking of the revealed character (apauruseyatva) of the *Vedas*. Thereby the Naiyāyika's view that the *Vedas* are the work of *Īsvara* is refuted. It may be recalled that Yāmuna differs from the Naiyāyika regarding the authorship of the *Vedas*. According to Yāmuna, they are impersonal in character, whereas, for the Naiyāyika, they are the work of *Īsvara*, the Lord of the universe. The above *sūtra* means that the *Vedas* are not (na ca) the work (karanam) of Īsvara (kartuh). In the course of these explanations, Yāmuna makes it clear that the *Pāñcarātra* is as valid as the

<sup>536.</sup> See *AP*. p. 66

<sup>537.</sup> Brahmasūtra: II.ii. 40.

Vedas themselves. He says further that since Vāsudeva Himself is glorified in many *Upaniṣads* and Purāṇas, *Pāñcarātra*, His work, cannot be questioned in regard to its validity by attributing evil qualities like deceit to Vāsudeva, its author.

Regarding the contention that the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$  is invalid on the ground that people outside the pale of the Vedas practise the rites ordained by it, Yāmuna disproves it with all his logical skills, posing various alternatives regarding the exact meaning of the expression "being outside the pale of the Vedas". Vedic seers of great repute like Bhṛgu and Bharadvāja accept the authority of these  $\bar{a}gamas$ , as is revealed by their own works. Even today, orthodox people are found to perform the rites enjoined in these texts, as for instance, the construction of temples, consecration of images and the like. They perform those rites, even as they perform other Vedic duties.

As regards the argument that Pāńcarātra is invalid since it is followed by the Bhāgavatas who do not belong to any of the three higher castes, Yāmuna replies that the Bhāgavatas are orthodox Brāhmaṇas following the Ekāyana-branch of the Śukla Yajurveda. They too maintain the Brahmanical marks like knots of hair and sacred thread and remember their gotra. The Brahmanical status of a man, however, is known by ocular perception (pratyakṣa) that is coupled with the recollection (smaraṇa) of the particular family to which he belongs. Since such a practice of remembering the gotra exists among the Bhāgavatas, the fact that they are Brāhmaṇas is to be accepted without any doubt.

Yāmuna then examines the *Smṛti*-statement that the Bhāgavatas belong to the *vaiśya-vrātya* community<sup>538</sup> which is decidedly non-Vedic. It had been urged by the opponent that the Bhāgavatas were referred to by the name "sāttvata" in the *smṛtis*. In reply Yāmuna points out that the terms, "bhāgavata" and "sāttvata" appearing in the *smṛtis* need not necessarily be taken as pointing to those belonging to the particular *vaiśya-vrātya* 

community, because there are orthodox people also bearing the same name. As a matter of fact, the Bhāgavatas have nothing to do with the vaiśya-vrātya community referred to in the smṛtis. If these two terms, "bhāgavata" and "sāttva", are taken to point only to a community low in the social scale, Yāmuṇa argues that even the term, "ācārya", mentioned in the passage, "vaiśyāttu jāyate vrātayāt sudhanvā "cārya eva ca", 539 will have to be taken as referring to another low-class person known as "ācārya" but not to the learned Brāhmaṇa teacher, since it is mentioned along with the term "sāttvata". But we know that the term "ācārya" signifies the Vedic teacher and that it could also mean a low-born man.

As regards the contention that the terms "bhāgavata" and "sāttvata" should be taken in their conventional sense alone, meaning a low community, the author says that this contention is baseless. When a term is capable of yielding a meaning by etymology itself, there is no justification in pressing the conventional sense into service. Even the principle of the rathakāra-nyāya applies only to cases other than these. Thus, etymologically these two terms, "bhāgavata" and "sattvata" which are formed by the addition of the suffix "aṇ" to the bases "sattvat" and "bhagavat", refer to the devotees of the Lord referred to by these bases, and this explanation is to be accepted as genuine.

Therefore the contention of the opponents that these Bhāgavatas are idential with  $vr\bar{a}tyas^{540}$  on account of similarity

<sup>538.</sup> Vide MS. X. 23:

<sup>&</sup>quot;vaiśyāttu jāyate vrātyāt sudhanvā "cārya eva ca| bhāruṣaśca nijaṅghaśca maitrassāttvata eva ca||"

<sup>539.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>540.</sup> Vide the following extracts from the Lingadhāranacandrikā, regarding the vrātya community: "The Atharvaveda mentions a new class of beings called 'vrātyas'. They meant originally those that were naturally pure and thus needed no saṃskāra—hence they are glorified in the Atharvaveda. Prāṇa is spoken in the Praśnopaniṣat as being a 'vrātya' and has been explained by Śaṅkarācārya in his bhāṣya as "prathamajatvāt anyasya saṃskarturabhāvāt asaṃskṛtaḥ; tvaṃ svabhāvata eva śuddha ityabhiprāyaḥ'.....The Vrātyas seem to have attached greater importance to a life of austerity and meditation upon God, than to the performance of sacrificial rites and the like.

It is said in the Atharvaveda (XV-11) that any one who "entertains a Vrātya will gain the road that gods travel", "will gain possession of

of avocation, stands refuted. *Vrātyas* who look after the temple and the Bhāgavatas who perform the five-fold acts like *upādāna*, *abhigamana*, *ijyā*, *svādhyāya* and *yoga* which are ordained upon devout Pāńcarātrins, cannot at all be identical. The usage of terms like '*bhāgavata*' and "*sāttvata*" should not be understood as necessitated by the non-Brahmanical status of these people. They should be explained like the terms "*bhāhmana*" and "*parivrājaka*". Yāmuna supports this view by citing other *nyāyas*.

waters", "will obtain what is dear", etc. The Veda similarly mentions further other benefits bestowed upon those that honoured the Vrātyas. The word 'vrātya' may or may not be understood as a form of Brahman — but it is evident that at this and subsequent times there must have developed in the public a reverence for religious mendicants who wandered about the land....without conforming themselves to the Brahmanic conventions.

Even during the Vedic times, their failure to conform to Vedic rites seems to have been disapproved, and the Vrātyas were regarded as falling outside the pale of orthodox society. And an attempt seems to have been made by the orthodox section to take the Vrātyas back into their fold by subjecting them to some purificatory ceremonies called 'vrātyastomas', a noteworthy content of the Tāndyabrāhmana of the Sāma Veda. 'They are sacrifices meant to enable these Āryan but non-Brahmanical Indians to enter the Brahmanical order' (MacDonel, Sanskrit Litreature, p.210). But it seems that the Vrātyastomas had not much effect and the Vrātya-section continued to develop and increase. Otherwise, there was no necessity for the later orthodox literature contained in sūtras and smṛtis to treat of Vrātyas and the Vrātyastomas. e.g. Kātyāyana Śrautasūtra says: "vrātyayogyaḥ stomaḥ......vrātyāḥ prasiddhā eva, patitasāvitrīkāḥ" (Vācaspatya: p. 5071).

They came to be a heterodox and degraded people, as may be ascertained from the derivative explanation of the word '*vrātya*' as: vrātāt samūhāt cyavati yat, avyavahārye samskārahīne jātimātropajivīni" (*Vācaspatya*: p. 5071)—pp. 151-3.

"The position of the *Vrātyas* was much better than that of the Śūdras. They were certainly non-Śūdras but were privileged Āryans and had degraded themselves by discarding the Brahmanical conventions. Otherwise the *Vrātyastomas* or the purificatory ceremonies cannot be significant except that they were designed by the orthodox section to take back the *Vrātyas*, the non-conformists, within their fold".—p. 158.

The next contention is that the Bhāgavatas are not at all orthodox Brāhmaṇas, since they worship the Lord for their livelihood and also take in the food offered to Him, which acts are strictly forbidden for the orthodox. The reply is that all Bhāgavatas are not found engaged in worshipping the Lord for livelihood. It is true that some Bhāgavatas, with acute pecuniary conditions may worship for their maintenance (svārtha). But this does not, in the least, affect the Brahmanical character of the Bhāgavatas in general, whose one-pointed devotion to the Lord is unquestionable. Worshipping for personal sustenance is prohibited only when it is done by greedy worshippers purely as a trade, but not otherwise.

As regards the argument that the Bhāgavatas are identical with the Devalakas who worship God for livelihood and live upon God's exchequer, which activities are denounced by the smrtis, Yāmuna, on the evidence of many smrtis-passages, replies that the condemnation applies only to those who are not initiated according to the  $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$  scriptures. It is also pointed out that the term, "devalaka" applies to one engaged in the worship of deities other than Viṣnu, like Rudra and Kāļī.

Regarding the allegation that the Bhāgavatas are not orthodox since they eat the food offered to the Lord (naivedya) and use His nirmālya, which activities are condemned by the smṛtis, Yāmuna discusses at length and concludes on the evidence of many Samhitās and Smṛtis that there is nothing contradicting the usage of Viṣnu's naivedya and nirmālya. Statements condemning their usage, found in some texts, are to be taken as referring to the naivedya and nirmālya of deities other than Viṣnu. Yāmuna declares that nobody can call in question the holy character of the naivedya and nirmālya of Viṣnu.

Regarding the contention that the Bhāgavatas are non-Vedic on the ground that they perform sacraments like garbhādhāna in a way that is quite different from the familiar one followed by others generally, Yāmuna replies as follows: Bhāgavatas who follow the Ekāyanaśākhā of the Śukla Yajurveda, perform sacraments only according to the Grhyasūtra of Kātyāyana. They do not lose their Brahmanical status by not performing the rites in the way ordained by other branches of

the *Veda*. One following a particular Vedic recension and undergoing certain *samskāras* should not question the way in which these very sacraments are being performed by other Vedic groups. One has to take into consideration the *tradition* that governs such practices.

The  $Ek\bar{a}yana$  branch of the Sukla~Yajurveda, on which the  $Pa\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$  is claimed to be based, Yāmuna declares, is not originated by a human being. He refers his readers in this connection, to another work,  $K\bar{a}smir\bar{a}gamapr\bar{a}m\bar{a}nya$ , which seems to be own work,  $^{541}$  and which is unfortunately lost to us. This work is devoted to establish the apauruseyatva or the revealed character of the  $Ek\bar{a}yana$  branch, says Yāmuna. The Bhāgavatas of the present day (his own times) says Yāmuna, in fine, cannot be proved to be  $Vr\bar{a}tyas$  (the non-conformists to Vedic rites) because they carry out all the Vedic rites like any other orthodox follower of the Veda, perform the  $S\bar{a}vitr\bar{\iota}$  ( $G\bar{a}yatr\bar{\iota}$ )-japa and so on.

Towards the end of the text, there are two stanzas in praise of Nāthamuni, the author's grandfather and also of the disciples of Nāthamuni. It is said that the disciples of Nāthamuni were great champions of the Bhāgavata (Sāttvata) religion and that they were unparalled dialecticians, fit to silence the opponents through the very arguments set forth by the latter. Nāthamuni is glorified here as a great devotee of Mukunda (Viṣṇu, the bestower of moksa) and as one who had a direct vision of the Three Realities (tattvatraya—i.e., Cit, Acit and Isvara), through his yogic powers.

## (e) The Siddhitraya

The Siddhitraya, which we now take up for study, happens to be the largest and the most important of all the compositions of Yāmuna. This work can rightly be said to be the source-book of Rāmānuja's  $\hat{S}r\bar{b}h\bar{a}sya$ , since many of the arguments and points of philosophical importance set forth in the Siddhitraya are either quoted or adapted by Rāmānuja.  $^{542}$ 

It may be noted, at the outset, that already by the time of our author, there existed the Siddhi-literature, i.e., literary works having the term 'siddhi' as the last member; 643 e.g., the Istasiddhi, the Naiskarmyasiddhi, the Brahmasiddhi and the Sphotasiddhi. "The term 'siddhi' stands for conclusive ascertainment as a result of careful investigation; and it presupposes discussion of a polemical nature, in many cases". 544 The fact that Yāmuna, in the Siddhitraya, refutes the view set forth in the three Advaita works, the Istasiddhi, the Naiskarmyasiddhi and the Brahmasiddhi, may be taken as explaining the name 'Siddhitraya'. 545

As the very name suggests, the Siddhitraya consists of three parts devoted to the establishment of the Ātman (the individual self), Īśvara (the Supreme Being) and Samwit (knowledge as distinct from the object), which are known as the Ātmasiddhi, Īśvarasiddhi and Samwitsiddhi respectively. It is a matter of regret that all these three Siddhis suffer from gaps and the extant text of the Siddhitraya is only a fragment of an originally larger work.

As regards the order in which these Siddhis were originally written, internal evidence shows that it is the Samwit-that comes first, since reference to it is found in the  $\bar{A}tma$ . The second and the third in succession are the  $\bar{A}tma$ - and the  $\bar{I}svara$ -. This is proved by the fact that Yāmuna refers to the  $\bar{A}tma$  in the  $\bar{I}svara$ . But the more popular order in which these sections are

<sup>541.</sup> See pp. 2-3 above.

<sup>542.</sup> See Ch. VI below.

<sup>543.</sup> Vide Introduction to the *Brahmasiddhi* (Section I) by Mm. Prof. S. Kuppuswamy Sastry.

<sup>544.</sup> Ibid. p. xxii.

<sup>545.</sup> Vide commentary on the *Siddhitraya* (*Ĩśvarasiddhi*), p. 106, by Sri Uttamūr T. Vīrarāghavācārya.

<sup>546.</sup> Vide Siddhitraya with the commentary by Annangarācārya, Ātmasiddhi, p. 84: "prakāśaśca...samvitsiddhāveva sādhitam".

<sup>547.</sup> Vide *Īśvarasiddhi*, p. 256: "pūrvadeha...ātmacintāyām".

found in the available editions<sup>548</sup> is made up of those relating to the establishment of the  $\bar{A}tman$ , the  $\bar{I}svara$  and the Samvit. We shall follow this order in studying the work. The fact that the  $\bar{A}tmasiddhi$  has an invocatory stanza (mangala-sloka) may, however, support this arrangement but it cannot be taken as a strong proof, since the available texts of the two other Siddhis, especially the Samvit, have no beginning.

The Atmasiddhi is the largest of all the three Siddhis available, and it consists of metrical as well as prose passages. In this section, the author proposes to discuss and establish the real nature of the  $\bar{A}tman$ , the individual self. The Nyāyasiddhānjana of Venkatanātha alias Vedānta Desika reveals the fact that the Atmasiddhi is a digest of the Nyāyatattva of Nāthamuni<sup>549</sup> and it is probable that it is a digest of the pramātrpāda of the latter. From the manner in which the subject is introduced in this part which has its share of gaps, Yāmuna seems to have dealt with it in its entirety.<sup>550</sup> Having established that the finite self is self-luminous, the text undertakes to establish its eternal character (nityatva) by first stating the prima facie view advanced by the Buddhists. Even this pūrvapaksa is not completely found here. It is at this point that this section breaks off. The verse that summarises the siddhanta-view on the individual self is:

"dehendriyamanahprāṇadhībhyo 'nyo 'nanyasādhanah nityo vyāpī pratikṣetramātmā bhinnah svatah sukhī" 551

This stanza puts forth the *Siddhānta* or the author's own view on the nature of the individual self and the rest of this section is by way of substantiating this view, in the course of which various theories on the nature of the self advocated by the Cārvākas, the Buddhists, the Advaitins, the Sāmkhyas and Mimāmsakas are stated and refuted.

The Isvarasiddhi, too, has passages both in verse and prose. In this section Yamuna tries to establish the existence of the Supreme Being who is also the Controller of the entire universe. This section too breaks off somewhat abruptly towards the end. The term 'tatra' 552 with which the vulgate text of the Iśvarasiddhi begins, leaves room to think that the opening part of this section is also lost. The available text of this section has the following order of arguments—the Mimāmsaka's contention that no Supreme Creator for this world is necessary; refutation of this view by the Naivāvika, in favour of an Omniscient Creator-God; the Mīmāmsaka's criticism of this, and a further refutation of the Mīmāmsaka's view by the Naiyāyika. It is here that this Siddhi ends. Some hold that this section, in its present form, is complete. In such a case, it has to be taken for granted that the author concurs with the Naiyāyika's manner of proving the existence of God through Inference (anumana), which, however, is hard to believe. 553

The  $\dot{sastray}$  onitva section of Rāmānuja's  $\dot{Sribha}$  sya which follows the  $\bar{I}\dot{svarasid}dhi$  almost verbatim, has an interesting feature about it, viz., that the entire  $\bar{I}\dot{svarasid}dhi$  in its present

<sup>548.</sup> The editions of the Siddhitraya are:

<sup>(</sup>i) by Śrī Rāmamiśraśāstrin. Benares, Pandit Series.

<sup>(</sup>ii) with commentary by Uttamūr T. Vīrarāghavācārya. Śrīvāṇī Press, Tirupati, 1942.

<sup>(</sup>iii) with commentary by P.B. Annangarācārya of Vadtal. Nirnayasāgar Press, 1954.

<sup>(</sup>iv) with English translation by Prof. R. Ramanujacharya. Ubhaya Vedanta Granthamala Book Trust, Madras, 1972. Throughout this Thesis, page-references to the *Siddhitraya* correspond to the work edited by P.B. Annangarācārya.

<sup>549.</sup> Vide  $Ny\bar{a}yasiddh\bar{a}\bar{n}jana$ , pp. 243-44 : "nyāyatattvasāstraprakaranam hi Ātmasiddhih".

<sup>550.</sup> Cf. AS. p. 14 f.

<sup>&</sup>quot;tadevamanavasitavis eş avimars akajanavimatidars anāt, tattatpak sasādhanabalābalānavagamācca tatastatah samdihānāh preksāvanto na tāvat paramapuru sārthāya ghateran, yāvadayamātmā paramātmā ca svarū patah, pramānatah, sambandhatah, prāptital, tatsādhanatas ca na nirnī yeteti tatpratibodhā yedamārabhyate".

<sup>551.</sup> Ibid. p. 17.

<sup>552.</sup> Cf. the opening stanza of the IS. p. 225:

<sup>&</sup>quot;tatra kasyacidekasya vaśe viśvam pravartate iti sādhayitum pūrvam pūrvapakṣam pracakṣmahe".

<sup>553.</sup> Yāmuna does not admit Inference as a means of establishing the  $j\bar{\imath}\nu a$  even, as is evidenced by the following statement in AS. p. 139: "ānumānikī mapyātmasiddhimaśraddadhānāh śrautī meva tām śrotrīyāh sangirante". From this, we can infer that Yāmuna would not have employed Inference to establish the existence of Supreme Being.

form has been included in the pūrvapakṣa and the conclusion has been arrived at in a different fashion, after refuting the contention of the logician too, with which the extant text of the Īśvarasiddhi ends<sup>554</sup>. The Naiyāyika infers the existence, omnipotence, etc. of God through logic whereas the Vedāntin establishes them strictly on the authority of scriptual passages, without recourse to pure logic. In the light of this, it appears that the entire text of the Īśvarasiddhi originally written by Yāmuna, consisted of a further siddhānta-portion establishing the existence of God on the lines of Vedāntic thought, which however, came to be lost in course of time. This view has the express support of the opening verse of the Siddhi, wherein the term 'pūrvapakṣa' occurs, covering even the Naiyāyika's arguments. 555

The third section viz., the Sanwitsiddhi, has a speciality about it, in that it is full of metrical passages; this section too is subject to the same fate of having gaps as the two preceding ones. Perhaps this is the only section that suffers heavily from gaps, at the beginning, the middle and the end. The available portion of this Siddhi contains passages which refute the Advaitic interpretation of some important Upanisadic texts and also the Advaitic conception of the Brahman, māyā, etc. Some of the passages of this section may make us suppose that the original text consisted of the refutation of the Buddhist conception of sanwit (consciousness) also. 556

Some verses of the Samvitsiddhi, not available in the vulgate text, are found quoted in the commentary of the  $Śr\bar{\imath}bh\bar{a}sya$  by Sudarśanasūri and also by Venkaṭanātha in some of his works. We shall discuss later on the missing portions of this Siddhi.

The Ātmasiddhi opens with an invocatory stanza, wherein the author aspires for the highest form of devotion to the Supreme. This verse is important because it not only stresses the need of devotion (bhakti) to the Lord, but also brings out, in a succinct way, the characteristics of the Supreme Godhead. The entire universe of matter and spirit—Matter in the unmanifest (prakrti) and the manifest (vyakta) forms, the element Time (kāla), and souls which are many (aneka) and classified as the bound (purusa), the liberated (mukta) and the ever-liberated (nityasiddha)—is said to run its course under the Will (icchā) of the Supreme Being, who is associated with Śrī. The Supreme Being is also said to be attended upon by the liberated and ever-released souls (nityasiddhas), whose only enjoyment is serving the Lord and His consort.

The author then sketches briefly the different views regarding the individual self and the Supreme Being with respect to such issues as their form, means of establishing their existence, mutual relations, release for the individual self and the means of release. He also observes that the compositions of philosophers like Bhartrhari, Sankara and Bhāskara have only misrepresented these issues and thus justifies his own undertaking in the present work. 558

In a verse that follows, 559 Yāmuna enumerates six characteristics of the individual self, which he proposes to

<sup>554.</sup> Brahmasūtra I. i. 3: "śāstrayonivāt"

<sup>555.</sup> İS. p. 225 : "pūrvapakṣam pracakṣmahe".

<sup>556.</sup> Cf. SS. p. 332 f : "nīlādyupaplavāpetasvacchacinmātrasantatiḥ"

<sup>557.</sup> Cf. AS. p. 1:

<sup>&</sup>quot;prakṛtipuruṣakālavyaktamuktā yadicchām anuvidadhati nityam nityasiddhairanekaiḥ

svaparicaraṇabhogaiśśrimati priyamāṇe bhavatu mama paramin pūruṣe bhaktibhūmā ||

<sup>558.</sup> AS. pp. 4-17. Cf. *ibid*: pp. 15-16; "yadyapi bhagavatā bādarāyanenedamarthānyeva sūtrāni pranītāni; vivṛtāni ca tāni parimitagambhirabhāṣinā dramiḍabhāṣyakṛtā; vistṛtāni ca tāni gambhīranyāyasāgarabhāṣinā śrīvatsānkamiśrenāpi; tathāpi ācāryaṭanka-bhartṛprapañca-bhartṛmitra-bhartṛhari-brahmadatta-śankara-śrīvatsānka-bhāskarādiviracitasitāsitavividhanibandhanaśraddhāvipralabdhabuddhayo na yathāvat, anyathā ca pratipadyante iti yuktah prakaranaprakramah"

<sup>559.</sup> Ibid. p. 17:

<sup>&</sup>quot;dehendriyamanahprāṇādhībhyo 'nyo 'nanyasādhanah nityo vyāpī pratikṣetramātmā bhinnassvatassukhī".

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establish in the  $\bar{A}tmasiddhi$ , after refuting other views. The self, according to him, is quite distinct from the physical body, senseorgans, mind, vital breath and intellect. It is self-luminous, eternal and also has attributive cosciousness which is all-pervasive. There are as many selves as there are bodies. The self is naturally blissful.

The first critic introduced by Yāmuna for refutation is the Cārvāka with his theory that the self (ātman) is not something different from the physical body. The concept of the self held by the Cārvāka, which is quite well-known, has been refuted by all theistic philosophers alike<sup>560</sup> and so we shall pass on to the next theory on the nature of the self set forth by Yāmuna for refutation.

This is to the effect that the sense-faculties themselves are the self. The advocates of this theory maintain that, since the sense-organs are not visible, qualities like colour and size which are found in visible objects are also absent from them. As a result of this, there would be no conception of "aham" (I) associated with the presentation of the colour, form, etc., by the senses. The advocates of this theory claim that the defects from which the Cārvāka's theory of the self suffers, are absent here. The knowledge arising from the activity of a particular sense-organ pertains only to that particular sense. This point is corroborated by them by quoting a passage from the Varāhapurāna, <sup>561</sup> which apparently demarcates the knowledge of one sense-organ from that of another.

Criticising the view, Yāmuna says that it cannot stand the strain of logical scrutiny. If the senses are themselves the self, they must be so, either individually or collectively. No sense

individually can be called the self, because then the recollection of a particular object by a particular sense-organ, already cognised by another sense, becomes impossible. But such a thing is a matter of experience for us, as is clear from the statement, "The pot which I saw before, is now being touched by me". The senses cannot also form the self collectively, for we do not either cognise or recollect a single object through all the sense-organs put together. This view also goes against our practical experience. If one sense fails to function, then according to this view, it should result in the death of the man possessing that sense.

Another defect about this theory is that when a particular sense-organ fails to function, the objects comprehended by that sense-organ before, can no longer be recollected later. But we know that recollections take place even in such cases. It is not a hard and fast rule that the knowledge arising out of a particular sense-organ inheres only in that particular sense. Thus, for example, we know that the sin arising from injuring a person through a weapon pertains only to the man who uses the weapon, but not to the weapon itself. The passage of the *Varāhapurāna* is to be understood in a different way. The statement made by the sage Satyatapas proceeded from his unwillingness either to let off the boar which resorted to him, or to allow the hunter and his family to die of starvation.

This is followed by another theory which maintains that the mind is the self and claims to be free from all the defects found in the preceding ones. The popular view that mind is superior to all the other sense-organs lends support to this view. Since mind is one and eternal, there is also no difficulty in accounting for perception and recollection, even though the senses may themselves fail to function.

This view is unsound, says Yāmuna because mind is, after all, an instrument for acquiring knowledge, like any other sense-organ. Even when the external sense-organs are in contact with their respective objects, they do not produce knowledge all at a time. They do so only one at a time, which makes us infer the existence of yet another means of knowledge without the aid of which other senses are not able to represent their objects simultaneously. This proves that mind is also an instrument involved in the production of knowledge. So it is contradictory

<sup>560.</sup> Cf. *Prabhākaravijaya* of Nandīśvara, where the section on the nature of self is almost identical with the *Ātmasiddhi*-portion setting forth the Cārvāka-conception of the *ātman*.

<sup>561.</sup> Varāhapurāṇa ch. 98: śls. 1-26 narrate the story of sage Satyatapas, replying to a hunter who questioned him about the whereabouts of a boar which had taken shelter in his āśrama. The sage in an indirect way replies that "neither the eye has a tongue nor the tongue, an eye". Cf.:

<sup>&</sup>quot;drastum caksur nāsti jihveha vaktum jihvāyāssyāt tattvato 'stīha caksuh"

to say that mind itself is the self, i.e., the agent of knowledge. If, however, what is thus served by other senses is called the self and the mind is equated with it, it would only be a difference in name. But this would contradict all experience.<sup>562</sup>

The conception of the mind according to the Nyāya-Vaiśeṣika is then set forth and refuted as unsound. <sup>563</sup> But it may be noted that Yāmuna does not clarify his own position on the nature of the mind, except that it is an instrument but not the agent or possessor of knowledge.

The Nyāya-Vaisesikas infer mind as the ninth category on the ground that the absence of simultaneous recollections cannot otherwise be accounted for. 564 Another reason they put forth is that pleasure, pain, etc., which are the special qualities inherent in the self, should have a non-inherent cause, which could only be of the form of conjunction (samyoga) of the self with some other entity; it is this other entity that is called 'manas'. This view is supported by them through the illustration of the production of colour in the atoms of earthen articles resulting from the conjunction of fire. The Nyāya-Vaises ikas also point out that mind is not constituted of any one of the five elementsearth, water, fire, air and ether. If the mind is elemental, it must be one among the five elements. The possibility of the mind being made up of one of these five elements is ruled out by Inferences. Thus, to cite one or two instances: 'Mind cannot be constituted of earth because it is an *indriva* helpful in cognising taste (rasa). The mind cannot also be made up of water, for it is instrumental to the cognition of smell'.

These arguments are criticised by Yāmuna, through another critic. The question of accounting for the absence of simultaneous recollections remains unaswered, even after the

mind is postulated. Although a man might have all the latent impressions in him necessary to rouse recollections of all the experiences he had, yet he is able recollect them one at a time, but not all at a time. It cannot be replied that this non-simultaneity is due to the sequence in which the stimulants of the samskāras occur. Even though one may try, through concentration, to recollect all his past experiences, he is able to recollect only one at a time. So, ultimately, the Nyāya-Vaisesikas have to bring in adrṣṭa and such other factors to account for the non-simulataneity of recollections. The same principle can be applied to the present case also. Although the senses are in contact with external objects, knowledge regarding all entities is not produced at one and the same time, because of the adṛṣṭa of the person concerned. So it is clear that there is no need to bring in a ninth category called manas.

The argument that pleasure, pain, etc. which are inherent in the self should have, as their non-inherent cause, the contact of the self with some other entity—which entity is called manas is also pointed out to be baseless. The non-inherent cause for pleasure and pain is the knowledge produced from the contact of the senses with favourable and unfavourable objects, which necessarily precedes all experience of pleasure and pain. This jñāna, in its turn, has, as its non-inherent cause (asamavāvi $k\bar{a}rana$ ), the contact of the senses with the self, where the senses happen to be already in conjunction with their respective objects. The conjunction between the self and the sense-organs has again, as its non-inherent cause, volition, adrsta and such other factors. As a matter of fact, volition itself forms the asamavāyi-kārana for adrsta. This makes it clear that mind cannot be postulated as the ninth category on the ground that pleasure etc. require an asamavāyi-kāraņa.

The next argument, viz., that the non-inherent cause of the special qualities of an eternal category could only be of the form of the conjunction (samyoga) of the eternal category with another entity, is also pointed out to be wrong. The illustration of colour found in the atoms of earth after contact with fire is also misplaced. The Nyāya-Vaisesikas have to infer the production of colour in earth-atoms only on the basis of their observation of colour in the effect  $(k\bar{a}rya)$ . Likewise, even in the case of pleasure,

<sup>562.</sup> Cf. AS., p. 46 : "tathā sati samjñāmātre vivādaļ.....kintu tadā sarvalaukikavayavahāro bādhyetetyalam".

<sup>563.</sup> *Ibid*: pp. 46-54.

<sup>564.</sup> Cf.  $Ny\bar{a}yas\bar{u}tra:$  I. i. 16: "yugapajjñānānutpattir manašo liṅgam".

pain, etc., they should be admitted to have been preceded by the  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  regarding entities that are favourable and unfavourable. Therefore, the postulation of the mind as the ninth category is not justified, since we are able to account for the non-appearance of simultaneous recollections in the manner shown above.

Even if the Nyāya-Vaises ikas want to infer the conjunction of the self with some other entity only on the strength of invariable concomitance (vyāpti), then it will result in the inference of the conjunction of the self with a well-known entity possessing the quality of touch such as the physical body; and so, this cannot improve the position. As regards the view that the possibility of the mind being elemental is disproved by inferences, it is criticised as preposterous. The inference which denies that mind is constituted of the element earth, also implies at the same time that it is made up of water. Likewise, the inference which disproves the watery character of mind, implies its being made up of air and so on. So, this type of inference is not helpful to the Nyāya-Vaises ikas. 5655

The critic points out that mind is neither elemental in character, nor the ninth category. Mind is nothing but intellect (buddhi). The different states of mind are also matters of experience to us, as for exapmple when we say, "My mind is perturbed", "My mind is peaceful," and so on. So, reference to the mind as an instrument of knowledge, found in authoritative texts, should only be understood as pointing to the different states of mind as 'buddhi' and 'ahankāra'. This discussion ends here and Yāmuna points out, without giving us his own view on the matter, that under no condition can mind be called the self, whether it is identical with buddhi or a different category altogether.

The theory that is next introduced is that which identifies the  $\bar{a}tman$  with vital breath. This is based on the observance of negative and positive concomitances of vital airs and the feeling of  $\bar{a}tmatva$  in all bodies. To be clear, we feel the presence of the  $\bar{a}tman$  in a physical body only when there is  $pr\bar{a}na$  inside; and we feel the absence of the self in a body when there is no  $pr\bar{a}na$ 

in it. Since  $pr\bar{a}na$  is mobile, scriptural texts which speak of the  $\bar{a}tman$  being liberated from the body, its movement in other dominions, etc., become meaningful. Otherwise, these texts should only be explained secondarily.

This theory is unsound, says Yāmuna. Vital breaths are not different from the air outside. That is why they cannot have consciousness. Another point is that when the self does not have any activity in deep sleep,  $pr\bar{a}na$  is still found to function. It is only due to the function of the  $pr\bar{a}na$  that the food, etc. taken in by man converted into the seven  $dh\bar{a}tus$ , even when he is asleep. So  $pr\bar{a}na$  is nothing but air within the body, associated with minute practicles of the three elements— fire, water and earth.

Another strong proof against  $pr\bar{a}na$  being the self is the fact that it can be felt by touch as any external object. Moreover, *śrutis* which speak of the movement of the self after exit from the body cannot be divested of their primary significance. The  $\bar{a}tman$  is subtle (avibhu) and as such, like the mind, can have motion in accordance with other contributory factors like volition and unseen merit (adrsta). Yāmuna tells us that this discussion also appears in the section dealing with the magnitude  $(parim\bar{a}na)$  of the self, which, unfortunately, is not available. <sup>566</sup>

The next view introduced is that the self is identical with Samuit or consciousness. 567 The advocates of this view put forth as the reason the fact of samuit being ajada, i.e., different from what is non-intelligent. Whenever there is jadatva, there is the absence of ātmatva, as in the case of a pot. By ajadatva is meant the characteristic fact of self-manifestation, because we know that consciousness, when it exists, does not fail to shine forth of its own accord.

The Bhāṭṭa's criticism of the above is then given briefly, that consciousness is also non-intelligent (jada), like a pot etc. and that its existence can only be inferred by means of an

<sup>566.</sup> Cf. AS., p. 56 : "parimāṇanirūpaṇe 'pyetat bhaviṣyatītyalamadhunā".

<sup>567.</sup> Cf. ibid: "bhavatu tarhi samvidevätmä, ajadatvät".

occasional property called ' $j\bar{n}\bar{a}tat\bar{a}$ ' or ' $prak\bar{a}sa$ ' or ' $pr\bar{a}katya$ ' (manifestedness) generated in the objects. <sup>568</sup>

This view of Bhāṭṭas is then controverted from the Prābhākara-standpoint. There is no justification for the postulation of an unknown property called jñātatā. Consciousness is itself enough to account for all usage (vyavahāra). Mere objective consciousness without reference to a knower and the known, cannot be said to exist at all. The triple factor of knowledge, the knower and the known is a necessity for all cognitions.

The view that self-luminous Consciousness constitutes the self is then taken up. The statement, 'I know', is explained by the Buddhists as not primarily speaking of a knower as the substratum of Consciousness. This is a determinate perception (savikalpaka), which, according to them, is not strictly perceptual in character. The point that the ātman is not something different from Consciousness is explained by them on the ground that it is always presented together with the latter (sahopalambha). This rule of sahopalambha, according to them, does not have any exception. That is why the nature of the self described by others proceeds only from the misconception that the self is different from Consciousness and as such, the argument cannot be correct. The Buddhists point out, in fine, that self-luminous Consciousness is the only reality and that the world of illusory distinction between the knower and the known, is based on the impressions of that Consciousness ( $v\bar{a}san\bar{a}$ ). The conclusion of the Advaitins regarding the nature of the self is also shown by Yāmuna to be similar to the above, except for the fact that the reason they put forth for the illusory appearance of distinctions in the world, is beginningless Nescience (anādyavidyā) and also that the self is of the form of such a Consciousness.

The above views are supported from quotations from the Buddhist and Advaita works.<sup>569</sup>

The Buddhist conception that momentary consciousness (ksanabhanginī sanwit) is the only Reality, is then criticised. Recognition of the type, "This is what I saw", involving a recollection and continuity, becomes inexplicable on this view. savs Yāmuna. Even a recourse to the view that consciousness can exist without a substratum (nirālambana-jāāna) cannot solve this problem, because this view goes against our practical experience. Moreover, all knowledge in general will have some object or other; if it does not pertain to any object (ālambana), it cannot be called iñana at all. Another contradiction in the Buddhistic argument is that the reason they put forth, viz., 'being' without a substratum or object (nirālambanatva)', does really have something to establish (sālambana); this is nothing but a contradiction in terms. Yāmuna further points out that the theory of the niralambanatva of knowledge is refuted by Näthamuni in his Nyāyatattva (called śāstra) by justifying the concept that all knowledge is real (vathārtha-Khvāti) 570

It is further pointed out that the difficulty of accounting for recognition cannot even be met by the conception of a stream-cognition (samwit- $sant\bar{a}na$ ), or by denying the validity of recognition by inferences. An intelligent entity which is the seat of the stream of cognitions and which is also existent at the time of recognition, is delcared by Yāmuna as an essential factor for recognition.

With the Buddhistic conception of Consciousness as the only reality thus set aside, the criticism now naturally turns to the Advaita which conceives of the self as Consciousness.

According to the Advaita, Consciousness is beginningless because it is self-existent and also because its antecedent non-existence (prāgabhāva) cannot be proved to exist by consciousness. 'Beginninglessness' also wards off modifications like growth and annihilation. For the same reason, it is also devoid of all differences of similar (sajātīya) and dissimilar (vijātīya) types, or even differences of an inherent nature (svagata). It can have no cognisable attribute too ("ato 'syā na meyah kaścidapi

<sup>568.</sup>  $\it Cf.~ibid:$  p. 57: "tataśca tadgatāgantukaprakāśātiśayadarśanena paścāt samvidanumāsyate iti".

<sup>569.</sup> Pra. Vār. III. 354:

<sup>&</sup>quot;avaibhāgo 'pi buddhyātmā viparyāsitadarśanaih grāhyagrāhakasamvittibhedavāniva laksvate"

Again, "suddham tattvam prapancasya na heturanivṛttitah jnatrjneyavibhāgasya māyaiva jananī tatah" (This is to be identified).

<sup>570.</sup> AS. p. 65: "yathārthakhyātisamarthanena ca śāstre....."

dharmo 'sti"). <sup>571</sup> It is this self-luminous and immutable Consciousness that manifests itself as the finite and the infinite selves. *Iṣṭasiddhi*<sup>572</sup> is quoted by Yāmuna on the above. The view of Sureśvarācārya<sup>573</sup> is also quoted to show that the self is of the form of *Samvit* and that this alone could be the purport of all the Vedāntas.

Detailed examination of the statements is then made. The Advaitic concept of the self is contradicted by secular as well as scriptural usage. Thus, for example, the judgement, "I know this", shows consciousness as pertaining to an object and also as forming an attribute of the perceiving self, the knower. Knowledge arises, exists and vanishes. It is absent from states of sleep, swoon, etc., because any knowledge relating to those states is not recollected. Terms like samvit and jnan are only relative, implying the reference to an agent and an object. Absolute knowledge without any agent and object cannot exist at all.  $^{574}$ 

The statement that the previous non-existence (prāgabhāva) of Consciousness cannot be established by Consciousness in incoherent, says Yāmuna. Consciousness generally reveals all objects irrespective of the time-factor. Only sensory perception has such limitations. With this, it is also pointed out that the view which holds that all objects of knowledge (prameya) are eternal because of their invariable relation with the eternal means of knowledge (pramāna) is wrong. The pramāna-prameya

relation consists in the representation of the real form of objects by the means of knowledge, as belonging to a particular time, place, etc. The statement of the *Istasiddhi*<sup>575</sup> that recollection does not pertain to external objects, that is to say, that it is invalid, is also pointed out to be baseless.

Self-existent consciousness cannot establish the non-existence of its own  $pr\bar{a}gabh\bar{a}va$ . Non-existence is established by effectual non-apprehension  $(yogy\bar{a}nupalabdhi)$  alone. All forms of knowledge like Perception and Inference cognise their objects under given conditions of time. Knowledge devoid of all distinctions cannot exist at all. Consciousness pertaining to others can be inferred. Otherwise, all activities would become impossible.

'Anubhūtitva' or being anubhūti or Consciousness is explained by Yāmuna as lying in manifesting its own self or its object to its substratum. Yāmuna argues out in detail against the statement of the Advaitins that Consciousness ceases to be itself, if it is cognised by anything else.

The argument that Consciousness is devoid of all modifications on the ground that it is without a beginning, is shown to go wrong in regard to its  $pr\bar{a}gabh\bar{a}va$  (prior non-existence); for such non-existence, though devoid of a beginning, is liable to end. The opinion that Consciousness is devoid of all distinctions is also shown by Yāmuna to be incorrect. The self, which is eternal, is distinct from the body, the senses, etc. One has to admit that the distinctions between different kinds of knowledge and their objects are all ultimately real on the strength of practical experience.

The contention that Consciousness has no cognisable attributes ( $n\bar{a}sy\bar{a}$  meyo dharmo 'sti) is also wrong. Qualities like self-luminosity and eternity with respect to Consciousness are admitted by the Advaitins themselves. The forms of consciousness, attributes like manifestation, eternity and number, are mutually distinct but not identical. Therefore, the declaration of the Istasiddhi, ' $n\bar{a}sy\bar{a}$  meyo dharmo 'sti' 576 is only a contradiction

<sup>571.</sup> Cf. Iş. S. p. 1: "nāsyā meyo dharmo 'pyastīyarthaḥ". There are many lines from *Iṣṭasiddhi* actually quoted by Yāmuna in his Ātmasiddhi, pp. 67-69.

<sup>572.</sup> Yāmuna quotes on p. 69 of the AS. the line, "yānubhūtirajāmeyā 'nantātmā", which is from the opening verse of Is.S.

<sup>573.</sup> The following two verses from the  $Brhd\bar{a}ranyakabh\bar{a}syau\bar{a}rtika$  are quoted :

<sup>&</sup>quot;parāgarthaprameyeşu yā phalatvena sammatā| samvit saiveha meyo 'rtho vedāntoktipramāṇataḥ|| aprāmāṇyaprasaktisca syādito 'nyārthakalpane| vedāntānām atas tasmān nānyamartham prakalpayet"||

<sup>574.</sup> AS. p. 73 "sambandhisabdāsca samvidanubhūtijñānaprakāsādisabdā iti sabdārthavidah; na hyakarmakasya jānātyāderakartrkasya vā prayogo loke vede vā".

 $<sup>575.\</sup> Cf.\ ibid.$ p. 76: "ata eva 'smṛtir na bāhyaviṣayā, naṣṭe 'pyarthe smṛtidarśanāt' ityapi pralāpaḥ".

Cf. Is.S. IV-17; p. 294.

<sup>576.</sup> Is.S. p. 1.

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in terms. The Genitive Case in "asyāh" (of this) necessarily implies some relation. Consciousness being manifest, it should only be qualified. If it is unmanifest, it would only become an absolute non-entity like a hare's horn. This manifestation must pertain to some person. Therefore, the Advaitic doctrine of Consciousness as the self cannot be the purport of the Vedāntas, says Yāmuna.

Recognitions like "I experienced this at one time" (ahamidamanvabhūvam), cannot be explained on the Advaitic view as on the Buddhistic view, he says. Going into the details of the Advaitic concept, the author says that the view that Consciousness erroneously appears as the agent, even as the shell appears as silver, is incoherent. If this were correct, the illusion then should take the form, "Consciousness is I", which, however, is not the case. The judgement, "I am conscious", shows 'consciousness' as an attribute of the entity called "aham" (I). The doctrine of the illusory knowership of the Consciousness also cannot be maintained by its advocates. According to them, the self, after the dawn of true knowledge, loses its knowership. If this were true, absence of such knowledge is preferable to its attainment, points out Yāmuna.

Another  $p\bar{u}rvapaksa$  view is that there exists a "witnessing inner self"  $(s\bar{a}ksin)$ , distinct from the knower denoted by the term 'I'. But this, according to our author, in unwarranted. 'Being a witness' means having direct knowledge of things. Direct knowledge pertains to the self denoted by the term 'I', which alone could be the witness  $(s\bar{a}ksin)$ , as is evidenced from statements like, "I know"  $(aham\ j\bar{a}n\bar{a}m\bar{i})$ , and "It manifests itself to me"  $(mahyam\ prak\bar{a}sate)$ .

The next claim of the Advaitins is that egoity (ahankāra), an evolute of the unmanifest prakṛti and intellect (buddhi), may be accepted as possessing this knowership. This view is rejected by Yāmuna on the ground that like the body, ahankāra and buddhi, too, are devoid of consciousness, mutable, non-intelligent, etc. Knowership cannot be ascribed to them, even through the reflection of, or contact with consciousness, for consciousness is imperceptible and it also possesses no real knowership according to the Advaitins.

The view that *ahankāra* manifests the self as residing within itself as a mirror, is then put forth. According to it, the judgement, "I know," is a case of erroneous knowledge. In states of deep sleep and release, there is no representation of the entity, 'I'; hence the self then exists in its original form of pure consciousness. So, what is referred to as "I", cannot be the self. *Naiskarmya-siddhi*<sup>577</sup> is quoted in support.

This view is criticised. Non-intelligent *ahankāra* cannot manifest the self which is self-luminous, even as a lump of spentup coal cannot manifest the Sun, as the former is dependent upon the latter for its very existence. <sup>578</sup> *Ahankāra* and the self are of two opposite natures; if the self were to be manifested by the former, it would only become non-intelligent like a pot.

The exact nature of the 'manifestation' claimed to be effected by  $ahank\bar{a}ra$  in respect of the self cannot be explained too. The possibilities of manifestation ever taking place are also examined and refuted by Yāmuna. In the course of this refutation it is also stated that the Advaitic conception of a positive and indefinable nescience  $(ajn\bar{a}na)$  as the material cause of the world is mere talk.

Moreover, a manifesting entity does not show the thing to be manifested as residing in itself. Lamps, etc., are given as the illustration. The theory of the intrinsic validity of knowledge demands a representation of all objects as they exist. The entity denoted by the 'I' alone could be the inward self, but not pure Consciousness, says Yāmuna.

The statement that the manifestation of 'I' is absent in states of deep sleep and release is shown by Yāmuna to be contradicted by common experience. In deep sleep, the element

<sup>577.</sup> NKS. II. 32 : p. 70 :

<sup>&</sup>quot;ātmanaścedahamdharmo yāyānmuktisusuptayoh yato nānveti tenāyamanyadīyo bhavedaham"

<sup>578.</sup> AS. p. 94:

<sup>&</sup>quot;sāntāngāra ivādityamahankāro jadātmakah svayamjyotisamātmānam vyanaktīti na yuktimat".

This is quoted by Rāmānuja is his  $\acute{S}r\bar{\imath}bh\bar{a}$ şya under I. i. 1.

of 'I' continues to exist, but does not cease to exist. None that has arisen from sleep recollects that he, during sleep, existed as pure Consciousness. Judgements like "I knew nothing at all" and 'I was not conscious even of my own self", adduced by the Advaitins in support of their view, are explained by Yāmuna in accordance with his own line of argument that during deep sleep, the self-exists only as the 'I'.

Equally illogical is the contention that the consciousness of 'I' is absent in the state of moksa. If this argument were correct, it only comes to mean that the self perishes in release, as held by the Bauddhas. Awareness as 'aham' (I) constitutes the very being of the self, and it is not its attribute. The statement, "Knowledge has arisen in me" ( $j\bar{n}\bar{a}nam$  me  $j\bar{a}tam$ ), shows knowledge as an attribute of the self.<sup>579</sup>

It is only for freeing one's own self from the sufferings of worldly existence and for attaining unending bliss that one would aspire and try for maksa. This cannot go well with the Advaitic conception of maksa, according to which in release, there would be a cessation of all ideas relating to the self termed "I". This view would thus result in the futility and the consequent invalidity of all the scriptures.

The Advaitins may further contend that in the judgement, "I know" (aham jānāmi), the self is actually represented by the term, "jānāmī", but not by the term "I". The entity "I" is only an objective element (yusmadartha), dependent upon the self. This view is set aside on the ground that it contradicts experience. None would think of the entity, 'I', referred to in the above judgement as the objective element and as the not-self. The entity 'I' is self-luminous and independent, and it alone could be the knowing self. Even in the state of release, as in the state of bondage, the self shines forth as 'I', for its own sake, as opposed to entities like a pot. It should not be argued that this knowledge of 'aham' would result in ignorance and bondage, for there is no invariable concomitance between the former and the latter.

Passages from the *Upanisads*<sup>580</sup> and the *Bhagavadgītā*<sup>581</sup> are then quoted by Yāmuna to emphasise that seers like Vāmadeva, gods like Rudra and even the Supreme Being had the consciousness of 'I' while referring to their own selves.

The consciousness of 'I', in the absence of all contradictory factors, refers primarily to the self. When it refers to the body, it is termed ' $avidy\bar{a}$ ' or ignorance. The  $Visnupur\bar{a}na^{582}$  is adduced by Yāmuna in support of this definition of  $avidy\bar{a}$ .

Moreover, the Advaitins cannot explain the erroneous conception of the body as the self, for nobody thinks of his own body as pure consciousness, which, according to the Advaitins, is the self.

The Advaitic conception of the self is thus shown by Yāmuna as unsound on the ground of practical experience, reasonings, scriputal statements and also due to the fact that nescience  $(avidy\bar{a})$  cannot be attributed to the self.<sup>583</sup>

Fallacies are then pointed out in the Inference of the Advaitins that Consciousness is the self of the ground that it is ajada, non-material or sentient. This term, 'ajadatva', cannot properly be defined by the Advaitins. It may be said that a thing which exists but which is not a self-luminious entity, is jada and that a thing which exists and shines forth as a self-luminous entity is ajada. But on this definition, ajadatva may also apply to sukha, duhkha and icchā, which are part of our experience, and to lamps etc., which exist and illumine. This reason, viz., ajadatva, can also be assailed as asiddha and viruddha, since

<sup>580.</sup> Cf. AS. pp. 107-08:

 $Brhad\bar{a}ranyaka$ : III. iv. 10 : "taddhaitat paśyan r<br/>ṣirvāmadevaḥ pratipede aham manurabhavam sūryaśca".

Atharvasiras: "ahameva ca vartāmi bhavişyāmi"; etc.

 $<sup>581.\,</sup>Bhagavadgīt\bar{a}$ : XV. 18a : "yasmāt kṣaramatīto 'hamakṣarādapi cottamaḥ" etc.

<sup>582.</sup> VI. 7. 10a : "śrūyatām cāpyavidyāyāḥ svarūpam kulanandana" etc.

<sup>583.</sup> Cf. AS. p. 110:

<sup>&</sup>quot;ataḥ pratyakṣasiddhatvād uktanyāyāgamānvayāt avidyā-ayogataścātmā jñātāhamiti bhāsate".

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the Advaitins do not accept any manifestation different from Consciousness. They hold pleasure and pain as being jada and not the self, for they manifest for the sake of others. But Yāmuna asks whether knowledge manifests itself for itself or for others. They have to say that it manifests for another entity denoted by 'aham' (I) and to whom an experience, 'I am happy' etc., occurs. So, this reason is asiddha. Thus, the self is that which is referred to as 'I', and which, being ajada, manifests itself for its own self. Knowledge is dependent upon the self for its own manifestation. It is on this supposition that types of knowledge like pleasure and pain are said to manifest only to the self on which they are based, but not to others. The self, on the other hand, does not, for its own manifestation, stand in need of any relation with another self or anything else for that matter.

The author then proceeds to refute the Buddhistic theory of sahopalambha in great detail. This theory tries to prove that there is no self different from knowledge, by reason of the two being presented together, as expressed in such statements as, "sahopalambhaniyamād abhedah nīlataddhiyoh". 584 But this sahopalambha theory, says the author, can equally be turned against the Buddhist, to prove that it is knowledge that is ever presented along with the self, in which case, knowledge will be mithyā or unreal. In our experience, there are two phases of sāmānyas and viśesas concomitant, presented as modes of a piece of knowledge. The Buddhistic theory of sahopalambha is asiddha in this instance, because viśesas vary from one another. The theory cannot be valid, because there is no knowledge which is purely particular (viśesamātra). 'Sāmānya', of course, is not acceptable to the Buddhists. But according to us, the self continues to shine forth even after cessation of all sensory activities as in states of deep sleep and dissolution.

The term 'sahopalambha', is a contradiction in terms since the usage of the word 'saha' ('along with') implies the acceptance of two different entities. So, having referred once to two different entities as ' $n\bar{\imath}la$ " (a blue object) and its ' $dh\bar{\imath}$ ' (knowledge) ( $n\bar{\imath}la$ -taddhiyoh), the Buddhists cannot identity them.

The identity sought to be established by sahopalambha is vitiated also by the contingency that knowledge and its opposite, viz., jadatva which is negated by knowledge, are attended by sahopalambha and hene would become identical. It is also liable to the same fallacy in the case of the cognitions of the bound selves (baddha) which co-exist with the knowledge of the Enlightened One (buddha). If, according to the Buddhistic theory, all these cognitions were to be identical with jadatva and omniscience, it would not only result in knowledge becoming jada, mūrta, etc. but also in the Enlightened becoming the bound, since knowledge would have all the limitations of the bound selves. 586

With his theory of sahopalambha thus refuted, the Buddhist now tries to establish identity between knowledge and the knower through a slightly modified argument. According to this, identity between two entities can be established when both of them are cognised by a single cognition. Samuit and its knower can thus become identical, only when they both become the objects of another single cognition. Similar is the case of identity between samuit and object.

Even this argument is criticised by Yāmuna as unsound, since all the defects pointed out earlier in the sahopalambha argument, would continue here also.

Another defect pointed out is that this argument cannot achieve the desired identity between two entities like knowledge and an object, or knowledge and the knower, that is to say, that the probans is aprayojaka or inefficacious. Thus, there need not be any identity between knowledge, the knower and the known, even if they are all cognised by a single cognition. An object like nila (a blue object, say, a blue pot), being non-luminous by its very nature, stands in need of self-luminous knowledge (prakāśa)

<sup>584.</sup> This is attributed to Dharmakīrti. See *Paācikā* of Śālikanātha on *Bṛhatī* of Prabhākara under I. i, 5, p. 79 (Madras University Sanskrit Series No. 3, Part I). The second half of the verse is:

<sup>&</sup>quot;bhedaśca bhrāntivijñānaiḥ dṛśyetendāvivādvaye".

<sup>585.</sup> Cf. AS. p. 114:

<sup>&</sup>quot;anekāntas ca samvidi pratisidhyamānair jadatvādibhih ; sarvajnajnānena sahopalambhaniyamabhāgibhih samsārijnānais ca; teṣāmabhedābhyupagame jnānasya jadatvamūrtatvādi, buddhasya baddhatvamityāpadyeta."

for its manifestation. Such being the case, there is no justification for the identification of objects with knowledge. The point that Yāmuna stresses here is that co-presentation of knowledge and objects is not due to the natural identity between both of them. Rather, it is due to the incapacity of the objects to manifest themselves independently, without the aid of self-luminous knowledge. Even granting that the theory of sahopalambha is valid, it might establish the identity of cognisable (external) objects alone, but never that of knowledge and its knower. 586

The Buddhist theory of sahopalambha, says Yāmuna, is also contradicted by practical experience because, in all cases of knowledge, the knower shines forth as quite distinct from knowledge as well as the objects of knowledge.

The opponent might now contend that perception of entities is rendered possible only when the counter-correlatives of those entities are perceived. Thus, according to him, difference between knowledge and the knower could be apprehended only when the counter-correlative of difference, viz., knowledge, is either directly perceived or is at least capable of being perceived. But since knowledge cannot be an object of perception, being non-material, difference, whose counter-correlative knowledge is, cannot also be perceived.

But this is a baseless contention, says Yāmuna. Perception of objects should not be linked to the perception of their countercorrelatives. It is enough if the counter-correlatives are generally known and it is not necessary that they should also be *perceived*. In common experience too, all objects appear to be mutually distinct, although we do not perceive the counter-correlatives of those objects.<sup>587</sup>

The Buddhist now tries to vindicate his sahopalambha theory from the viewpoint of the relative strength of pramānas—Perception and Inference. He contends that Perception which establishes the difference between knowledge and its objects cannot contradict Inference which, on the contrary, proves their

identity and on which is based his edifice of the sahopalambha theory. While agreeing that difference between entities is a matter of perception, he maintains that the sahopalambha or copresentation of knowledge and the objects invariably proves their identity, which necessarily involves the refutation of difference. On this ground, he declares that Perception cannot disprove the conclusion arrived at through Inference. In support of this, he cites the instance of the inference which establishes difference between two flames appearing on one wick, which are, however, cognised as identical through recognition  $(pratyabhijn\bar{a})$ , a variety of Perception. Even as the inference here is more valid than Perception, so also, in the case under discussion, inference should be held more valid than perception, says the Buddhist.

But this contention, according to Yāmuna, is idle, because the criterion of relative strength between the two means of knowledge referred to above, viz., perception and inference, lies in one of them being free from ocular and such other defects. So long as defects in the causes continue to exist, even perceptual knowledge fails to disprove inference, which is based upon valid perception. The instance of flames cited by the opponent, should also be properly examined. Perception of the identity of flames can be proved to be erroneous because the person who perceives it fails to grasp the distinction between one flame and another in a continuous or non-continuous burning of oil lamp. He fails to notice the difference of flames because of two factors: (a) the close similarity of the preceding and the succeeding flames and (b) the appearance of those flames on one and the same wick.

All cases of erroneous perception of identity between two different entities are to be explained in this manner. Yāmuna says that even cases where difference is perceived in one and the same entity, could be proved erroneous, as for example when one and the same moon appears as two. Here, the observation of two moons is clerly attributable to some defect in the eye, and hence, could be proved to be erroneous. Such perceptions are also known to be defective due to the fact that they are contradicted by the perception of other persons who are free from such defects and to whom the same moon appears as one. It is therefore clear that

<sup>586.</sup> Vide AS. pp. 115-16.

<sup>587.</sup> Ibid: p. 116

perception proceeding from defective sense-organs cannot refute inferences based on valid observations.

Yāmuna points out that the point under discussion is of a dissimilar nature.588 We perceive differences among things, and this is a valid perception, since it cannot be attributed to any defect. Therefore, the question of inference disproving perception does not arise here. That the perception of differences between the knower and knowledge is free from ocular and such other defects is also corroborated by the fact that the 'knower' and the 'knowledge' are beyond the purview of sense-organs. Moreover, there is no proof contradicting this difference, as in the case of the observation of two moons. Knowledge, in other words, consists in the realization or the correct apprehension of objects. Since this knowledge is self-luminous, sahopalambha would be a natural concomitant of the process of knowledge, and there can be no special theory about it, such as the Buddhists advance, for proving the identity of the cogniser and the cognition.

Yamuna, in conclusion, states that the observations made above would prove that the Buddhistic conception of the self (ātman) is in utter contradiction to all practical experience. 589

The author then turns to the Advaitic concept of the self as of the nature of luminosity. The self is quite distinct from nonluminous entities like pots, etc., and can therefore be described as of the nature of self-luminous knowledge. But it cannot, on this score, be identified with pure knowledge because it is independent and it possesses knowledge as its attribute. It also shines forth as 'aham' (I). Knowledge, on the contrary, is dependent upon the self and is also occasioned, and it assumes the form of the object cognised. Yāmuna emphasises the point that on no ground can the self be identified with pure knowledge, being the possessor of knowledge. 590

Passages are then quoted by the author from Upanisads like the  $Ch\bar{a}ndogya$ , <sup>591</sup> the  $Brhad\bar{a}ranyaka$  <sup>592</sup> and the  $Pra\acute{s}na$  <sup>593</sup> in support of his description of the self as the knower and the controller of the vital breaths and as the self-luminous entity referred to as 'aham' (I), residing in the cavity of the heart.

Having thus shown that the individual self is possessed of knowledge, the author now proceeds to show that even the Supreme Self is a knower. The *Taitiirīya* passage, "satyamiñānam anantam brahma", 594 is explained by him as referring to the Brahman as the possessor of knowledge, but not as knowledge itself, as held by the Advaitins. Yāmuna argues that the term, 'iñāna', if it were to refer to 'knowledge' alone, should, according to Pāṇini's aphorism, "liti", 595 have the udātta accent on the first syllable. But in the passage cited, the term 'iñāna', is pronounced with the udātta on the final syllable. The final udātta accent can be accounted for, only when the suffix, 'ac', in the sense of possession is added to the term ' $j\tilde{n}\bar{a}na$ '. So, the term ' $j\tilde{n}\bar{a}na$ ', occuring in the above passage, means 'one who possesses knowledge'. Thus the Supreme Person is a Knower, but not mere knowledge. The author also quotes another passage from the Aitareya Upanisad<sup>596</sup> to show that the Supreme Self is clearly referred to as a 'knower'.

Yāmuna thus concludes the topic that the individual self is the knower but not knowledge itself.<sup>597</sup>

The author then examines the nature of the means (pramāna) by which the individual soul is established as being distinct from the body, senses, etc.

<sup>588.</sup> Cf. AS. p. 117, ff.

<sup>589.</sup> Ibid. pp. 119-20.

<sup>590.</sup> Ibid: pp. 120-21.

<sup>591.</sup> VIII. xii. 3: "atha yo veda idam jighraniti sa atma"

<sup>592.</sup> VI. iii. 7: "yo'yam vijñānamayah prāneşu hṛdyantarjyotih purusah"

<sup>593.</sup> IV. 9: "eşa hi draştā śrotā ghrātā rasayitā mantā boddhā kartā vijñānātmā purusah"

<sup>594.</sup> II. i. 1.

<sup>595.</sup> VI. i. 193.

<sup>596.</sup> V-3,4: "prajňām brahma....sa etena prājňenātmanā". But the reading generally found in printed texts of the Upanisad is : "prajñātmanā".

<sup>597.</sup> AS. p. 123.

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The Nyāya view is first taken up for a critical examination, which tries to establish the self by inference on the ground that it is the substratum of the qualities, desire, hatred, effort, pleasure, pain and knowledge. 598

Inference which is based upon the knowledge of invariable concomitance (vyāpti) between the probans and the probandum, is of two types: the viśeṣatodrṣṭa⁵59 and the sāmānyatodrṣṭa, based upon concomitances between the particular and the general, i.e, the former referring to the concomitance of particular objects within the purview of sense-organs, and the later referring to the concomitance of objects beyond the ken of perceptual knowledge.

The "visesatodrs ta" would apply to cases falling within the possibility of one's direct experience. In the present case, if the relation between the particular  $icch\bar{a}$ ,  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ , etc., and  $\bar{a}tman$  could be seen by us, there would be no necessity for any  $anum\bar{a}na$  to infer the self. Like the  $s\bar{a}dhana$ -visesa, the  $s\bar{a}dhya$ -visesa would also be perceptible. Therefore,  $\bar{a}tman$  not being perceptible in this manner, the Naiyāyika would apply the next variety, viz., the  $s\bar{a}m\bar{a}nyatodrs ta$ , to achieve his end.

After making an anuvāda of the Nyāya-arguments inferring the self which are quite well-known, <sup>600</sup> Yāmuna begins to refute them. It may be noted that the inferences advanced by the Naiyāyikas are, to a large extent, purely negative, being of the kevalavyatireki - type. While they infer some substratum for icchā, jāāna, etc., on the ground that they are qualities, employing the positive type of anumāna (the anvayin), they employ a number of kevalavyatireki-inferences to prove that the qualities referred to above inhere in an entity other than the body and also that they do not inhere in the body.

In reply to these arguments, Yāmuna states that the positive and the negative types of inference advanced by the Naiyāyika would merely point to "some' entity as the substrate of the qualities like effort and desire. But they fail to specify what that entity is, so much so that it is difficult to call it the "self". The Naiyāyika had brought in the purely negative type of inference—the kevalavyatirekin, so as to specify the substratum of the qualities as the ātman. But Yāmuna does not accord the kevalavyatirekin the status of a pramāna on the ground that it does not satisfy the necessary conditions. To explain, a reason can establish its end under the following conditions: (i) it must be present in the subject (paksa), 601 (ii) it must also be present in the positive instance (sapaksa), 603 (iii) it must be absent from the negative instances (vipaksa), 603 and it must not be vitiated

<sup>598.</sup> Cf.  $Ny\bar{a}yas\bar{u}tra$ : I. i. 10: "icchādveṣaprayatnasukhaduhkhajñānāni ātmano lingam".

<sup>599. (</sup>a) Gautama in his Nyāyasūtra and Iśvarakṛṣṇa in his Sānkhyakārikā, refer to three types of inference— 'pūrvavat', 'śeṣavat', and 'sāmānyatodṛṣṭa'. Vācaspatimiśra, in his commentary on the Sānkhyakārikā, makes a twofold division as 'vīta' and avīta', but nowhere do we find the 'viśeṣatodṛṣṭa' as a type of anumāna.

<sup>(</sup>b) Kaundinya, in his commentary on the *Pāśupatasūtra* under I. i, p. 7 (Trivandrum Sanskrit Series) also does not name 'viśeṣatodṛṣṭa' but makes a different classification. He says: "tacca dvividham: dṛṣṭaṁ sāmānyatodṛṣṭaṁ ca; tatra dṛṣṭaṁapi dvividham—pūrvayat, śeṣavacca".

<sup>(</sup>c) Nyāyamajarī of Jayantabhaṭṭa (Vol. I. pp. 131-32), though making no express reference is made, describes anumāna which can be called "viśeṣatodṛṣṭa'.

<sup>(</sup>d) Kumārila, for the first time, refers to the "višeṣatodṛṣṭa" as a type of anumāna in his Ślokavārtika (section on Anumāna. verse 143), and ascribes the coining of this name to Vindhyavāsin. Cf. "višeṣadṛṣṭametacca likhitam vindhyavāsinā".

<sup>(</sup>e) The Śaiva work, *Pauṣkarasamhitā*, with the commentary by Umāpati Śivācārya, gives *viśeṣatodṛṣṭa*. Umāpati says under V-42 (jňānapāda): p. 542 (Jňānasambandhavilāsa Press, Chidambaram): "dṛṣṭam, sāmānyatodṛṣṭam viśeṣatodṛṣṭamiti dvidhā".

<sup>(</sup>f) Yāmuna himself refers to this in his IS. p. 233.

<sup>(</sup>g) In the Visistādvaita literature, see Vedāntadesika's *Nyāyaparisuddhi*, (p. 107), for this anumāna-variety.

<sup>(</sup>h) Also see *Bhoja's Śṛṇgāraprakāśa* by Dr. V. Raghavan, p. 739, for a complete account of the *viśeṣatodṛṣṭa*, and *Epistemology of the Bhāṭṭa School of Pūrvamīmāmsā* by Govardhanadas P. Bhatta, p. 256. ff.

<sup>600.</sup> See *Nyāyasūtra*: I. i. 10, ff, with Vātsyāyana's commentary. 601. In the statement, "The hill is fiery, because it is smoky", the *paksa* is the hill.

<sup>602</sup>. In the above, the sapaksa is an instance which contains fire, as the kitchen, for example.

 $<sup>603.\</sup> Vipaksa$  is that where fire does not exist, e.g., a lake in this case.

by the defects called (iv) "satpratipaksa"604 and (v)"badha".605 The kevalavyatirekin inference in question, says Yāmuna, does not satisfy the second condition mentioned above, viz., that the reason should be present in the positive illustration also. In the inferences of the kevalavyatirekin variety, not even a single case of positive illustration can be pointed out. Since the concomitance is to be grasped between the 'abhāvas' or non-existences of the probans and the probandum, it is not possible to show any positive instance (sapaksa). When the inference thus fails to satisfy one of the important conditions, viz., presence of the reason in the sapaksa, there could be no sound knwledge of vyāpti between the means and the end, so that it loses its character of an anumana. That is why the author does not accept the kevalavyatirekin as an inference at all.606 In this respect, he compares the kevalavyatirekin to the fallacy called 'asādhārana', where a reason is found to exist only in the subject (paksa), absenting itself from all instances, positive as well as negative, as in the statement, "Sound is eternal because it is sound" (śabdo nitvah śabdatvāt).

The logician might now argue that even the kevala-anvayin type of anumāna, which the author holds valid, is vitiated by a similar defect. The kevala-anvayin or the purely positive inference too fails to satisfy the third condition referred to above, viz., absence of the hetu from all negative instances (vipakṣa). In all inferences of the kevala-anvayin type, not even a single case of vipakṣa can be shown where the reason is non-existent. In this regard, the logician points out that the kevala-anvayin inference is comparable to the fallacy called 'sādhārana', 607 where the

reason is found to exist in the *pakṣa* as well as *vipakṣa* as in the statement, 'The hill is fiery because it is cognisable' (*parvato vahnimān prameyatvāt*).

Replying to this objection, Yamuna says that an inference in general should be based upon invariable concomitance (vvanti) between the reason and the thing to be established. The kevalaanvayin inference with which the Naiyāyika finds fault, poses no difficulty in arriving at the invariable concomitance (vyāpti). It is no doubt true that in this type of inference, it is not possible to know that the reason is absent from the vipaksa. But this will in no way hamper the knowledge of vyāpti. The absence of the reason from the negative instance (vipaksa) cannot be grasped in this type of anumana, only because there could be no vipaksa at all. The instance of a kevala-anvayin inference is: "Everything is nameable because it is cognisable" (sarvam abhidheyam premevatvāt). It may be noted that here no negative concomitance can be shown in the form: "wherever there is no nameability, there could be no cognisability", because everything is cognisable and nameable, according to Nyāya. So, in such cases, there is no possibility of any negative instance ever existing. When there is no vipaksa at all, how can any reason be found to be absent from it? So, the third of the five conditions enumerated above, should be taken as applying only to such inferences where a vipaksa is capable of being pointed out. Since there is an unobstructed knowledge of vyapti, it is to be admitted that the kevala-anvayin inference is valid.

It may further be contended by the Naiyāyika that the reason employed in the *kevala-anvayin* might, under different conditions of place and time, be vitiated by the defect called '*upādhi*'. But Yāmuna rejects this objection summarily by saying that anticipations regarding the possible defects in a reason could all be set at rest by cogent reasoning, <sup>608</sup> the ultimate result being that the *vyāpti* between the *sādhana* and the *sādhya* becomes known.

<sup>604.</sup> The fallacy satpratipaksa arises when one reason admits of being counter-balanced by another reason that proves the non-existence of the probandum  $(s\bar{a}dhya)$ . E.g., the statement, "Sound is eternal because it is audible". The reason which disproves this can be stated as: "Sound is non-eternal for it is also originated like a pot".

<sup>605.</sup> Bādha (stultified reason) is one which is put forward to prove a probandum whose non-existence is established through another proof. E.g., "Fire is not hot, for it is a substance".

<sup>· 606.</sup> ĀS. p. 127 : "kevalavyatirekī tu sādhanadaśāmeva nāsādayati" 607. *Ibid* : pp. 127-28.

<sup>608.</sup> AS. p. 128: 'deśakālādiśankitopādhivigam'epi..." etc.

 $<sup>\</sup>textit{AP}:$ p. 30 : "anāgataviparyayot<br/>prekṣāyāḥ pratyakṣavirodhāt; aśeṣavyavahārocchedahetutvācca".

Last of all, the author finds fault with the illustration given by the Naiyāyika in his inference. It had been said that qualities like  $icch\bar{a}$  and  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  belong to an entity other than the body, even as the quality 'sound' belongs to an entity other than the earth. The instance of the quality, 'sound', belonging to an entity other than earth, no doubt points to the existence of a different entity, but that entity is not precisely known as ether. Likewise, when it is said that qualities like desire and knowledge belong to an entity other than the body, no definite conclusion that they inhere in the self alone could be reached.

The author then introduces the Sānkhya view for a critical examination and refutation. The Sānkhya, like Nyāya school, adopts inference (anumāna) as the chief means of establishing the self. Thus it infers the self on the ground that (i) collocations (sanghāta) do exist for the sake of another entity (parārtha); (ii) there must be an entity which is the reverse of the trinity of

gunas, (iii) there must exist some controller for the body, senses, etc., as for the chariot, etc., (iv) there must exist a subject or being that is affected by feelings of pleasure and pain, and (v) the scriptural texts promising kaivalya (release) and enjoining activity to that end, as also the efforts of seers to attain it should all be accounted for. The Sānkhya also seeks to prove that the self thus established, need not itself be a collocation  $(sangh\bar{a}ta)$  due to the fact that the argument will then be vitiated by the fallacy of infinite regress  $(anavasth\bar{a})$ . These reasonings are too well-known, and they can be understood from authoritative treatises of the school like the  $S\bar{a}nkhyak\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$  and the commentary of Vācaspati on it.  $^{611}$ 

According to Yāmuna, the arguments advanced by the Sānkhyas fail to achieve their desired end. The defect from which the inferences of the Sānkhya school suffer is similar to the one attributed to the Nyāya school earlier in regard to establishing the ātman through anumāna. It had been pointed out earlier, in reply to the Naiyāyika, that while a substratum could be inferred for qualities like desire, knowledge and effort, there is no proof for maintaining that that substratum is the ātman alone. Likewise, here too the arguments advanced by the Sānkhya merely point to the existence of a controlling and perceiving agent. They cannot establish the particular features intended by the arguer, viz., that the self is not an aggregate (saṅghāta) and that it is the opposite of the threefold guna, and so on. 612

<sup>609.</sup> AS. p. 128 : "sandehagrastatvācca—kim sādhanābhā-vaprayuktah sādhyābhāvaḥ, kim vā nimittāntaraprayukta iti".

<sup>610.</sup> Yāmuna quotes from the Sānkhyakārikā, śl.17. Cf. ĀS. p.130:

<sup>&</sup>quot;sanghātaparārthatvāt triguṇādiviparyayādadhisthānāt puruṣo 'sti bhoktrbhāvāt kaivalyārtham pravṛtteśca".

Cf. also Sānkhyakārikā: śl. 19, on the characteristics of the self.

<sup>&</sup>quot;tasmācca viparyayāsiddham sākşitvamasya puruşasya kaivalyam mādhyasthyam drastṛtvamakartṛbhāvaśca".

<sup>611.</sup> The  $S\bar{a}nkhyak\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ , with the  $S\bar{a}nkhyatattvakaumud\bar{i}$  of Vācaspati along with  $t\bar{i}k\bar{a}$  by Banshi Dhara Misra had been published under the Chowkhamba Sanskrit series No. 54 Vidyavilas Press Benaras, 1921. See page 233, ff for the explanation of the verse "Sanghata" the (sl. 17). This has also been edited with an English translation by S.S. Suryanarayana Sastri and published by the University of Madras 1935.

<sup>612.</sup> AS. p. 133 : "atrāpi sanghātapārāthyādibhir yadapi parah ko 'pyadhiṣṭhātā draṣṭā siddhaḥ, tathāpi na tasya asamhatatvātriguṇatvādirabhimataviseṣaḥ sakyaniscayaḥ".

The advocate of the Sankhva school holds that the self could not be accepted as a collocation (sanghāta) for fear of infinite regress (anavasthā). But such an infinite series of entities, says Yāmuna, cannot be a defect, when it becomes a logical necessity, as in the unending cause-effect series of a seed and its sprout, which is accepted as valid on all hands. As regards the contention that the self need not necessarily be an aggretate to become the principal entity (sesin) subserved by other entities, Yāmuna says that the way in which the Sānkhyas characterise the self affords no room for such a supposition. The atman, according to them is of the form of mere knowledge and is immutable. It is too perfect to admit of any additional significance brought about by a subordinate entity. An entity can become the principal one (sesin) only when it derives something from other entities, as when it is brought into existence by them (an example being a pot brought into existence with the help of a potter's stick), or when it attains some speciality through them (as when a body is decorated with flowers). Since the self is perfect in every respect by its own nature, the Sānkhya cannot call it a "sesin".

The doctrinal and dialectical weakness of the Sānkhya is all the more exposed by Yāmuna when he proves that śeṣitva (the character of being the primary entity) cannot go well with the Sānkhya theory even through a recourse to delusion (bhrama). The self being pure knowledge opposed to all defects, no delusion of being a śeṣin can occur to it. The intellect (buddhi) or mind too cannot have this erroneous knowledge, for, they are insentient by their very nature.

Sentience cannot be attributed to the mind by calling it a reflecting agent of consciousness, for both the mind and consciousness being pure and colourless, no reflection can take place. This difficulty persits, even when the mind is said to attain sentience through similarity with consciousness, 613 for the term,

'similarity', cannot properly be explained by the advocates by the Sānkhya school. If by similarity is meant immutablility, it would mean that the mind cannot change into different states as pleasure and pain, which, however, is not the case. Similarity cannot even be explained as 'knowership', for the self of the Sānkhyas is mere 'knowledge', but not a possessor thereof.614 Attempts to find similarity between the mind and consciousness on the basis of the former being different from a jada-entity (ajadatva) are also futile, says Yāmuna. Ajadatva (not being inert or iada), as already shown, 615 is not different from 'knowership', for which there is no provision in the Sankhya. The mind, it has earlier been said, depends upon consciousness for its own manifestation, and it cannot now be contended that it is selfluminous. Even granting that consciousness is reflected in the mind, there cannot arise the qualities of 'knowership' and 'delusion' in the mind, since these qualities are present neither in the mind nor in consciousness. Yāmuna adds that this pratibimba-theory had been refuted in earlier works like the Nyāvatattva<sup>616</sup> of Nāthamuni.

The advocate of the Sānkhya tries to solve the difficulty by saying that the very presence of consciousness (caitanya) can make the mind assume different states. Though the mind is thus the entity that is actually involved in the process, yet it is consciousness that is called the witness ( $s\bar{a}ksin$ ) and the enjoyer, because of its relative importance. The point is supported by the illustration of an emperor who alone is described as having waged

<sup>613.</sup> Cf. Sānkhyakārikā, śl. 5, with the commentary of Vācaspati, pp. 132-33:

<sup>&</sup>quot;...buddhitattvasya sukhādayo 'pi pariņāmabhedā acetanāḥ, puruṣastu sukhādyananuṣaṅgī cetanaḥ, so'yaṁ buddhitattvavartinā jñānasukhādinā tatpratibimbitaḥ, tacchāyāpattyā jñānasukhādimāniva bhavatīti cetano 'nugrhyate; citi cchāyāpattyā cācetanāpi buddhiḥ tadadhyavasāyaśca cetana iva bhavatīti".

Cf. Sānkhyakārikā, śl. 20:

<sup>&</sup>quot;tasmāt tatsamyogādacetanam cetanāvadiva lingam gunakartrtve'pi tathā karteva bhavatyudāsīnah".

<sup>614.</sup> Yāmuna quotes in  $\overline{AS}$ , p. 136, Patanjali's  $\underline{Yogas\bar{u}tra}$ , I. 9: "yadā citireva puruṣaḥ kimatra kena vyapadisyate".

<sup>615.</sup> See pp. 155-56 above.

<sup>616.</sup> This work is not available.

and won wars although it is his generals and soldiers that actually fought and won.  $^{617}$ 

Even this argument is unsound, says Yāmuna, because the Sānkhyas do not admit of any real witnessing character for the self; a witness is one that perceives things directly, but is not mere consciousness. This perceiving power is not natural to the self as described in Sānkhya. Such a power of witnessing things cannot be attributed to it through delusion, and this point has just been explained. Pointing out that the illustration of the emperor cited by the Sānkhya is also incoherent, Yāmuna says that an emperor is neither inactive nor nonchalant<sup>618</sup> like the Sānkhya self. Undoubtedly, the emperor is the pivotal principal entity that directs his subordinates to do certain things and attains wealth, glory, victory, etc., through them for himself.

Concluding the refutation of the Sānkhya school, Yāmuna points out that no negative inferences fare well in establishing the ātman as being distinct from the body, sense-organs, etc., because they are directly stultified by judgements based on perceptions like "I am fat", which appear to identify the body, etc. with the self.

Having thus refuted the Nyāya and the Sānkhya theories regarding the means of establishing the *ātman*, the author says that the Vedāntins adopt a different attitude to this question. For

them, Vedic texts are the sole means of establishing the self.<sup>619</sup> Yāmuna, in this connection, quotes three varieties of texts: (a) those which distinguish the self from the body and its modes,<sup>620</sup> (b) those which call the self eternal,<sup>621</sup> and (c) those which state that the self possesses no body during the state of moksa.<sup>622</sup> Yāmuna says that there is one more pramāna which establishes the self, and that is śrutyarthāpatti (presumption from the incompatibility of the meaning of the Vedic texts). The Vedic texts ordain a number of rites upon the self as the means of achieving fruits like Heaven,<sup>623</sup> which are to be achieved only in the hereafter. These texts could not be valid, unless the self upon which they ordain the rites were itself eternal and distinct from the body, senses, etc.

Having thus briefly set forth the Vedāntic viewpoint regarding the means of establishing the  $\bar{a}tman$  to which he himself contributes, Yāmuna enters into an elaborate discussion on the views of the Bhāṭṭa and the Prābhākara Mīmāmsakas regarding the same problem.

The Bhāṭṭa, to start with, does not find any justification in resorting to śruti for establishing the self. Perception itself can establish the self, as in the statements, "I know", and "This is my body". These statements according to him, point to the self as distinct from the body, etc. Clarifying his position, he says that since everybody has a direct experience of the entity of "aham" (I), and since the external senses cannot cognise the self which is subtle and colourless, the mind alone should be accepted as

<sup>617.</sup> Cf.  $S\bar{a}\dot{n}khyatattvakaumud\bar{\iota}$  on  $\pm 1.62$ , p. 498 :

<sup>&</sup>quot;tasmānna badhyate 'ddhā na mucyate nāpi samsarati kaścit| samsarati badhyate mucyate ca nānāśrayā prakṛtiḥ" | |

<sup>&</sup>quot;bandhamokṣasamsārāḥ puruṣeṣūpacaryante; yathā jayaparājayau bhṛtyagatāvapi svāmini upacaryete, tadāśrayeṇa bhṛtyānām tadbhāgitvāt tatphalasya ca śokalābhādeḥ svāmini sambhavāt".

It may be noted that the same analogy occurs in the  $Vy\bar{a}sabh\bar{a}sya$  on  $Yogas\bar{u}tra: I. 24$ .

<sup>618.</sup> Cf. Sānkhyakārikā: śl. 65:

<sup>&</sup>quot;tena nivṛttaprasavām arthavaśāt saptarūpavinivṛttām prakṛtim paśyati puruṣah prekṣakavadavasthitaḥ svacchaḥ".

Cf. also *ibid*: 66a: "....dṛṣṭā mayetyupekṣaka ekah".

<sup>619,</sup> AS. p. 139:

<sup>&</sup>quot;ānumānikīmapyātmasiddhim aśraddadhānāh śrautīmeva tām śrotriyāh sangirante".

<sup>620.</sup> Cf. Brhadaranyaka VI. v. 15: "sa esa neti neti".

Cf. also Īśāvāsya: VIII: "akāyam avraņam asnāviram" etc.

<sup>621.</sup> Cf.  $Bhagavadgit\bar{a}: II.$  20: "na jāyate mriyate vā" etc. Cf.  $Ch\bar{a}ndogya:$  VI. i. 3: "jīvāpetam vāva kiledam mriyate na jīvo mriyate".

<sup>622.</sup> Cf. *Chāndogya*: VII. xii.1.: "na ha vai saśarīrasya satah priyāpriyayorapahatirasti".

<sup>623.</sup> Cf. "jyotistomena svargakāmo yajeta".

because, while being imperceptible to the external senses, it is

still directly experienced like pleasure, etc."624

Refuting the Prābhākara's claim that the ātman is cognised as the substratum of knowledge during the perception of objects. 625 the Bhātta states that it is opposed to our practical experience. In an objective perception, one sees the object alone, but not the self too. There may, however, arise such reflective cognition as "I know this object", but it is an instance of mental perception, says the Bhātta. Here the objective knowledge existing in the self is inferred through the adventitious characteristic called 'iñātatā' or manifestedness, produced in the object. The Prābhākara view that the distinction between one's knowledge and that of other would cease to exist if the self were not admitted to be the substrate of all knowledge, is also refuted by the Bhatta. The distinction between one's knowledge and other's knowledge lies in the difference of the sense-object contacts associated with one's self and others. There could be nothing more objectionable than saving that the self is cognised by the same means as an object. On the other hand, it has to be admitted that knowledge exists in a general and latent form throughout the perception of all objects. The Bhātta observes that knowledge itself can account for the distinction between different entities and that there could be no question of the self being manifested as the substratum of knowledge, along with objects. The Prābhākara view that all cases of objective cognition consist of the triad (triputi) made up of knowledge, the

knower and the known is, according to the Bhāṭṭa, opposed to practical experience.

A different attitude is adopted by the Prābhākara to this problem. He brushes aside as meaningless the theory of mental perception, put forth by the Bhātta.

Knowledge, according to the Präbhākara, is self-manifest. When an object is cognised, the knowledge that arises not only manifests the object concerned, but also the self that forms the substratum of the knowledge. The ātman is manifested only when the objects are cognised, and is thus not self-luminous in nature. The syllogism put forth by the Bhāṭṭas, that the self is cognised by mental perception is criticised by the Prābhākara. The syllogism is vitiated by the fallacy of vyabhicāra in the instance of knowledge (samvedana), which is directly experienced, but not perceived by the manas. The Prābhākara says that the difficulty cannot be overcome by saving the  $i\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  is also cognised by mental perception. Posing various alternatives, he shows that iñāna cannot be mentally grasped. The mind is only an indriva, and whatever is cognised by a sense-organ should, as a rule, be different from the self. So, saying that the self is perceived by the mind is a contradiction in terms. The illustration of pleasure etc., given by the Bhatta is vitiated by the defect called sādhyavikalatā (absence of the probandum). Pleasure and pain, according to the Prābhākara, as according to the Siddhāntin, are not perceptible in nature. They appear as perceptible and are really different states of the sense-organs. When the sense-organs are relaxed and active, we feel pleasure (sukha) and in the absence of this feature, we experience pain (duhkha). The pairs of rāga and dvesa (love and hatred) and soka and bhaya (grief and fear) cannot also be given as illustrations in the place of sukha and duhkha, for the same reason. Love and hate are different states of consciousness (caitanya), and grief and fear are different states of the mind.626

<sup>624.</sup> Cf. AS. p. 142 : "ātmā mānasapratyaksagrāhyah, bahirindriyāyogyatve sati pratyaksatvāt sukhādivat".

Vide Epistemology of the Bhāṭṭa School of Pūrva Mīmāmsā, p. 403: "Kumārila says that the self is known through the notion of "I" (ahampratyaya) and Pārthasārathi, on the basis of this, concludes that the self is known through mental perception (mānasapratyakṣa)".

<sup>625.</sup> The Prābhākaras show, in support, the *Chāndogya* text, (VII. xii. 3) "atha yo veda idam jighrānīti sa ātmā"

<sup>626.</sup> Cf. AS. pp. 144-46: "...sukhaduḥkhayoḥ pratyakṣatvānabhyu-pagamāt; anabhyupagamaśca indriyapauṣkalyanāśayoreva sukhaduḥkhatvāt; rāgadveṣādayastu caitanyasyaivāvasthāvi-śeṣās tadvadeva pratyakṣībhavanti..." etc.

finds parsimony in accepting a single self-luminous entity, viz., knowledge, which manifests all entities including the self, instead of positing self-luminous character to the self.

The Prābhākara argues that in the state of release too, as in deep sleep, the self cannot have any knowledge. The totality of causes like the body and sense-organs is absent during moksa and so, no knowledge is possible. The mind which is eternal. cannot be said to account for knowledge during release; because. though eternal, it still requires dharma and adharma to produce knowledge. The ātman cannot be said to either possess knowledge as a permanent attribute or produce knowledge by its very existence, for, then there could have been no state of transmigration at all, the self being eternal, and there could also be no distinction between bondage and release. Śrutis characterise moksa as a state which transcends both dharma and adharma 628 including the dharma brought out by yoga, and so, knowledge in the state of release is an utter impossibility. Moreover, if moksa were to result from dharma, it cannot be real moksa since it would only result in rebirth.629

In conclusion, the Prābhākara points out that  $\text{texts}^{630}$  which speak of the self as the possessor of knowledge in the state of release should not be given primary significance. They should be explained as mere  $arthav\bar{a}da$  passages intent upon glorifying  $\bar{a}tmaj\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ .

Criticising the Prābhākara theory that the ātman is manifested not by itself, but by knowledge as an entity different from it, and also that the ātman is not self-luminous, Yāmuna says that there could be nothing more absurd and objectionable than this. Knowledge is a distinct entity and so is the self. The self cannot be manifested by knowledge, even as the quality of

Since the self is impartite (niramśa), it is difficult to say for the Bhāṭṭa, how the self can be the cogniser as well as the cognised. If the self were admitted to possess parts, it would only land the arguer in infinite regress, for the part that acts as the cogniser requires another part for its own validity and so on, ad infinitum. This would further weaken the Bhāṭṭa's position, for the self would then become an aggregate (saṅghāṭa) and consequently, non-eternal.

The Bhātta's claim that objective knowledge merely presents the objects but not the self too, is condemned by the Prābhākara as being contradicted by practical experience. When an object is perceived, there is an invariable manifestation of the ātman too. If the self were not manifested as the substrate of knowledge, then there should be the mere cognition of objects. without any notion of their association with either oneself or others. But none has such an experience. Therefore, it has to be admitted that whenever an object is cognised, two entities also shine forth along with it invariably: the knowledge and the knower. If the self were not the substrate of knowledge, there would then be no distinction of one's knowledge from that of others. The claim of the Bhatta that jñana is inferred, is also wrong because, were it inferred, the judgement should then take the form, 'I knew', but not 'I know', inference being a past event. 627 The entire process of anumana, consisting of the cognition of the invariable concomitance (vyāpti) between jñāna and jñātatā, involves more time than actual perception and so, does not last till the reflective cognition arises.

The theory of the self being cognised by mental perception is also cumbersome because knowledge which is self-luminous can itself be accepted as manifesting the self, as in the case of the object. The distinction between the 'knowledges' associated with different persons could also be conveniently explained only when the self is accepted as the substrate of those knowledges. The Prābhākara further says that all objects are perceived only when knowledge exists, but not otherwise. In deep sleep, for instance, though the objects exist, these are not cognised because no knowledge exists then, the senses being dormant. The Prābhākara

<sup>628.</sup> Cf. Mundaka: II. ii. 9: "kṣīyante cāsya karmāṇi" and ibid: III. i. 3: "tadā vidvān punyapāpe vidhūya nirañjanaḥ" etc.

<sup>629.</sup>  $\mathit{Ibid}: I. ii. 12:$  "nāstyakṛtaḥ kṛtena", and  $\mathit{Ch\bar{a}ndogya}: VIII.1.6:$  "tadyatheha karmacito lokaḥ kṣīyate", etc.

<sup>630.</sup> Cf. "suşuptasthāna ekībhūtaḥ prajñānaghana evānandamayo hyānandabhāk" (Māṇḍūkya : V)

Cf. "sarvamha paśyah paśyati sarvamāpnoti sarvaśah" (*Chāndogya*: VII. ii. 6)

<sup>627.</sup> Cf.  $\overline{AS}$ . pp. 148-49: "anumitajñānālambanatve cājñāsiṣamityeva pratibhāsaḥ syāt; na jānāmīti".

taste cannot be cognised by the faculty of colour. The self does not come under the purview of knowledge pertaining to objects. The Prābhākara-theory that knowledge is self-luminous and that it reveals ātman on one hand and objects on the other, is beset with many incoherences. Yāmuna points out that even knowledge has to shine forth to a self, like an object. Experience shows that knowledge regarding a particular object pertains only to a particular self, but not to all selves. This phenomenon has to be explained by the Prābhākara only with reference to the relation of that particular knowledge with the particular self, to which it shines forth. It is thus clear that knowledge, which the Prābhākara claims to be self-luminous, requires some connection with an atman for its own manifestation. Knowledge has no independent status. If it becomes manifest, it does so, only in association with a self but not of its own accord. If the Prābhākara theory were correct, then it would require even pleasure and pain to be self-luminous, for, whenever they exist, they are directly experienced.

It may be recalled that the Prābhākara found the assumption of self-luminous knowledge less cumbersome than positing such a self luminous character with the ātman itself. <sup>631</sup> Repudiating the above assumption, Yāmuna says that if the principle of economy were the chief criterion, the Prābhākara should accept the ātman alone as the single self-luminous entity, for it is the self that invariably stands as the witness to all objects as well as their cognitions. Acceptance of a number of self-luminous 'knowledges' pertaining to different objects is indeed combersome. The argument that the witnessing entity, ātman, could be manifested by knowledge, the witnessed entity, is as absurd as the statement that a man who sees a pot, is himself manifested by the pot, says the author. <sup>632</sup>

Having thus set aside briefly the Prābhākara view of the ātman being revealed by knowledge, Yāmuna proceeds to set forth an important doctrine about the ātman, according to his own school of thought, viz., that the ātman is self-luminous in character and that it possesses knowledge as a natural and eternal attribute (prakāra or dharmavisesa), which, in later terminology of the school, came to be known specifically as 'dharmabhūtajñāna'. This conception of knowledge as an eternal and invariable attribute of the self is an important landmark in the history of the Visistādvaita philosophy. All later writers like Rāmānuja and Vedāntadesika found it a very important and helpful concept, since it not only affords the interpretation of many a Vedāntic text but facilitates the refutation of the Advaitic theory of avidyā.

Whenever we perceive an object, there is a chain of factors involved: the object, the light, the sense-organ, the knowledge and the self. Among these, each succeeding factor manifests the preceding one. These do not, for their manifestation, require other entities that either belong to their own class (sajātīya), or those that depend upon them for their own manifestation. For instance, a pot, for its manifestation, does not expect another pot; in requires a light for that purpose. The light, again, requires neither light nor the pot for its revelation. It requires the senseorgan, and so on, with other entities. But the atman requires neither another self, nor knowledge, senses, etc., for its manifestation; it is self-luminous and so, does not stand in need of any other entity for its own cognition, 634 The point to be noted here is that knowledge and the atman are both self-manifest in the sense that they do not require another knowledge or another thing for their manifestation. The distinction of the self from knowledge is that it does not require anything other than its own self, including knowledge, for its cognition.

<sup>631.</sup> See p. 174 above.

<sup>632.</sup> AS. p. 159 : "yatsākṣī khalvayam puruṣaḥ, na tenāsau pratyakṣaḥ, ghaṭasākṣātkāriva ghaṭena".

<sup>633.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 161. Cf. *Vedārthasangraha*: p. 45: "kṣetrajñānām syadharmabhūtajñānasya..." etc.

<sup>634.</sup> Cf. AS. p. 160:

<sup>&</sup>quot;sajātī yasvasādhyārthanira peksātmasiddhayah sarve padārthāstenātmā nira peksasvasiddhikah"

Desika in his *Tattvaţīkā*, p. 112, quotes this verse and explains "siddhi" as "vyavahārayogyatārūpah prakāsah".

attribute  $(j\bar{a}ti)$ , cannot leave its substratum, the  $\bar{a}tman$ , and go out to contact other objects.<sup>636</sup>

YĀMUNA'S CONTRIBUTION TO VIŚISTĀDVAITA

Some try to account for the contact of knowledge with its objects by assuming the self as possessing two phases: the substantial (bahula) and the unsubstantial (virala). The 'bhulātman' is the actual self, and the 'viralātman' is the ātman which comes into contact with, or possesses knowledge at a particular time, as its attribute. The opponent, anticipating this view, points out that the ātman is eternal, impartite and devoid of all qualities like substantiality, touch and contact. This theory also lands one in the Jaina view, for it is there that mutually contradictory qualities are attributed to one and the same entity.

Some, however, put forth a different theory for explaining the contact of knowledge with its objects. According to them, the  $\bar{a}tman$  is all-pervasive and is qualified by knowledge. This knowledge can manifest all entities at all times. But the manifestation of objects is obstructed by the quality, tamas (inertia). They are cognised only when the sense-organs predominated by the quality sattva (serenity), break through the veil of tamas shrouding those objects. The degree of manifestation of the objects depends upon the intensity of the sattva quality belonging to the senses. This view does not pay special attention to the self-luminous character of the  $\bar{a}tman$  because knowledge itself can manifest it. 638

Anticipating the above view, the critic says that the senses here are said to be merely instruments for dispelling the tamas standing in between consciousness and the objects. They are not actually the means of producing knowledge, which is the chief function of all the senses. He says that neither the manifestation existing in the objects, nor the contact of consciousness with the objects, can be called  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ . If the manifestation existing in the objects were called knowledge, then, even the objects would become identical with knowledge, since they form the very substrate of that manifestation. If the contact of objects and consciousness is to be termed ' $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ ', the objects would also

Knowledge, for the self, is as eternal and as natural as radiance is for the sun. It is not something that is occasioned in its essence, as held by some. But when knowledge comes into contact with different objects, it gets different designations as objective knowledge. Yāmuna, in this connection, refers to as many as five different views against the conception of dharmabhūtajñāna, the chief authors of these views being the Nyāya-Vaiseṣikas and the Pūrvamīmāmsakas. The main point of their contention is that knowledge cannot be an eternal attribute of the self and that it could only be occasioned.

The first of these views which opposes the conception of dharmabhūtajñāna is that experience proves that knowledge can be occasioned. Knowledge arises only when the sense-organs come into contact with their respective objects, but not otherwise. Judgements of the type, "I know" (in the Present Tense) and "I knew" (in the Past Tense), clearly show knowledge as conditioned by time. If knowledge is an eternal characteristic of the self, there could then be no distinction between the states of deep sleep and waking, and also between bondage and release. It would then be difficult to determine the relation between knowledge and the objects in contact with it. It would also be difficult to distinguish one item of objective knowledge from another, for, knowledge being eternal, it would manifest all objects simultaneously, if it is admitted to be self-luminous; if it were non-luminous, it would not manifest any object at all. Thus, there is no guiding principle as to why only a particular object should be cognised by a particular person at a particular time, but not all objects by all persons at all times. 635

The second view is that if knowledge is eternal, the contact between it and the objects cannot be accounted for. It cannot be argued that knowledge, though eternal, could relate to the objects only when the sense-organs that carry it are actually in contact with those objects. This argument is not accepted by the opponent, mainly on the ground that there is no direct contact between knowledge and the objects and also due to the fact that knowledge being a quality (guna) like colour or taste, or a generic

<sup>636.</sup> Ibid. pp. 163-64.

<sup>637.</sup> Ibid. pp. 164-65.

<sup>638.</sup> *Ibid*. pp. 166-66.

become possessors of knowledge since they are in contact with the  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ . Experience, however, shows that  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  is only an occasioned attribute of the  $\bar{a}tman$  through such statements as "I perceive the object now" and "I do not perceive it now". The opponent says that this phenomenon cannot be explained away through the illustration of the radiance of the Sun, which, though eternal in essence, appears to manifest only certain entities at one time but not all objects at all times. The sun's rays, the  $p\bar{u}rvapaksin$  says, constitute a substance (dravya) and can thus travel, expand or contact things, unlike consciousness, which is only a guna of the  $\bar{a}tman$ . 639

Others who try to make a compromise, say that the self possesses two kinds of knowledge: the eternal and the noneternal. Eternal knowledge pertains to the ātman as such; the non-eternal knowledge pertains to objects. This view claims that this second variety of knowledge, viz., the non-eternal knowledge, can account for the states of deep sleep, waking, etc. Anticipating this view, the opponent refutes it by saying that he does not at all accept the  $\bar{a}tman$  as the substratum of eternal knowledge. He admits that throughout the waking state the ātman possesses knowledge, but not during deep sleep, for there is no warrant for such a supposition. The opponent, at great length, demonstrates that the manifestation of the atman during deep sleep cannot be inferred. 640 Such an inference is also not necessary, for recollections like "I slept well", prove that the self exists during sleep, and that there is no objective knowledge during that state. Statements like "I slept well", says the opponent, are not really recollections. As already pointed out, they are inferences proceeding from a particular state of the sense-organs, viz., their being in a relaxed condition. Even granting that these statements are recollections, the self thus recollected cannot essentially be characterised by eternal knowledge. The cognition, "I slept well", says the opponent, proceeds from nidrā (sleep), which, on the authority of Patanjali, is one of the five states of mind. 641 This state, nidrā, is itself based upon the quality of tamas (inertia).

which is marked by the absence of all objective cognition. So, the  $\bar{a}tman$  during deep sleep witnesses only tamas (inertia or  $aj\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ ), and if at all it is recollected, it is done only as the witness of tamas but not as the possessor of eternal knowledge. In conclusion, the opponent says that the determination of the nature of the  $\bar{a}tman$  in deep sleep which is under dispute, is dependent upon an objective experience like the nature of the  $\bar{a}tman$  during the wakeful state, where  $\bar{a}tman$  means the knower of the object. Knowledge is a special quality of the  $\bar{a}tman$  like pleasure and pain,  $^{642}$  and therefore, it could only be occasioned, but not eternal.

Refuting these arguments, Yāmuna declares that knowledge is an attribute quite natural to the self, even as luminosity is to light. Knowledge characterises the very nature of the ātman, so much so it is difficult to comprehend it without knowledge. Since the self is eternal, it follows that knowledge also is eternal. Conversely, says Yāmuna, any entity that is devoid of consciousness cannot be the self. By this statement, Yāmuna implies that even in the state of release, the self continues to exist as a knower.

So as to distinguish the self from inanimate entities like the pot, the Nyāya-Vaisesikas and the Bhāṭṭas advance a new argument that the ātman, though devoid of knowledge, still possesses the power that can produce knowledge in the state of

<sup>639.</sup> Ibid: pp. 166-167.

<sup>640.</sup> Ibid: pp. 167-170.

<sup>641.</sup> Cf. Yogasütra: I. 10: "abhāvapratyayālambanā vrttir nidrā". See AS p. 171 for the above quotation.

Cf. also *Yogasūtra*: I. 5-6: "vṛttayaḥ pańcatayyaḥ, kliṣṭāḥ akliṣṭāḥ; pramāṇaviparyayavikalpanidrāsmṛtayaḥ".

<sup>642.</sup> The opponent says that sukha and duhkha could be the special qualities of the self because, while they are not known to have any substrate that is generally accepted (like the body), they are still known to become manifest to some substratum like the quality knowledge; this substrate is indicated to be the ātman by statements of co-ordinate predication like 'aham sukhī'.

<sup>643</sup>. See AS. p. 178: "...raveriva tejasvitvam". For another simile, see ibid: p. 172, "prakāša iva tejasaḥ"

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 $moksa.^{644}$  Criticising this, the author says that there is neither any proof for such a supposition, nor is any purpose served by it. If the  $\bar{a}tman$  really possesses the cognitive power in moksa, it should naturally produce knowledge. To say that the effect is absent even when the necessary means exists, is quite-preposterous. Moreover, such a power of producing  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  cannot inhere in a realised soul. The power to produce a sprout, for instance, lies only in rice-seed which has not been cleansed of the chaff. To give another illustration, the capacity to generate smoke exists only in fire that is in contact with wet fuel. Likewise, the power to produce  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ , if at all there is such a power, should exist only in an  $\bar{a}tman$  that is associated with a body and senses. Since, in the state of moksa, the self is devoid of the physical body and senses, it is clear that it cannot at all possess the cognitive power referred to above.

The opponents assert that the self is devoid of knowledge in  $mok \mathfrak{s}a$ . This when analysed, means that the capacity to generate knowledge is also absent, which ultimately results in the annihilation of the  $\bar{a}tman$  itself. This assumption is also cumbersome because the self can be distinguished from what is non-self, by virtue of its characteristic knowledge itself, says Yāmuna.  $^{645}$ 

Having thus established that  $j\tilde{n}\bar{a}na$  is eternal in character, Yāmuna points out that this should not drive anybody to the conclusion that knowledge itself could be the self. Knowledge and the self, as explained earlier, are of a diametrically opposite nature, and their identity is not justified. Knowledge depends upon a substrate (the self) and a counter-correlative (the object) for its own manifestation. But the  $\bar{a}tman$  is quite independent of all such limitations. He is self-luminous and is directly experienced as "aham" and as the possessor of knowledge. This

point has already been explained, even through other means of knowledge, viz., inference and scriptural testimony.<sup>646</sup>

Yāmuna observes that those who maintain that the self is mere consciousness cannot make any headway in accounting for the relation beetween knowledge and the object that is known. They say that knowledge is nothing but the conjunction (samyoga) between consciousness and the object, and call consciousness 'the knower'. Yāmuna points out that this 'conjunction' (sambandha) which the opponents call 'iñāna', does not pertain to any single entity. It always involves two entities. Thus, since the conjunction in question is common to both consciousness and the object, the latter would also become a knower. The analogy of kārva-kārana relation (the cause-andeffect relation) cannot be brought in to assert the knowership of consciousness. To explain, kārya-kāraņa-bhāva is common to both the cause and the effect. Even then, it is still possible to say which is a cause and which is an effect. On this analogy, the opponent argues that although the subject-object conjunction is common to both consciousness and object, it is still possible to say that consciousness alone is the knower, since the object is insentient and dependent on consciousness by its very nature.

Refuting this, the author says that the relation between consciousness and the object in question, cannot be compared with  $k\bar{a}rya-k\bar{a}rana$  relation. In the  $k\bar{a}rya-k\bar{a}rana-bh\bar{a}va$ , there is mutual dependence and expectancy between the entitites functioning as the cause and the effect. A cause anticipates an effect and an effect presupposes a cause. But there is no such mutual expectancy between consciousness and the object. It cannot be said that these entities need each other for purposes of 'revelation' (siddhi). Yāmuna says that the term 'siddhi' can have two meanings: 'utpatti' (production) and 'prakāśa' (manifestation), out of which, neither would apply here. The first meaning, viz., "utpatti", does not apply here, because neither the objects require consciousness for their production, nor does

<sup>644.</sup> See Epistemology of the Bhāṭṭa School of Pūrva Mīmāmsā: (p. 9) where Pārthasārathimiśra is said to have put forth this view in his Śāstradīpikā (Nirṇayasāgara Edition), pp. 128, 130.

<sup>645</sup>. AS. p. 173: "api ca bodhe satyevātmano 'nātmavyavacchede sambhavati, kṛtam tacchaktyāśrayanena".

<sup>646.</sup> *Ibid*: p. 173.

 $<sup>647.\ \</sup> AS.$  p. 174: "na ca kāryakāraņabhāvavad vyavasthitatvam, tatra janimato janayituśca parasparāpekṣāniyamalakṣaṇasambandhaḥ"

consciousness require the objects for its own production. Objects like a pot only require clay, the potter's rod and such other causes for their origination. They do not, as such, stand in need of consciousness for their production. Consciousness being eternal, there could be no question of its needing the objects for its production. Such a supposition would also be self-contradictory. The second interpretation offered for the term "siddhi", viz., "prakāśa" (manifestation), cannot also be applied here. The self being self-luminous, it does not require other objects for its manifestation. Even the objects do not require consciousness for thier manifestation, for, as has already been pointed out. manifestation (prakāśa) is not something which is beyond consciousness (samwit) or an extraneous thing pertaining to objects as a property. Therefore, the statement that objects require consciousness for manifestation (which is not different from consciousness itself) results in the defect called "ātmāśraya". Even if prakāśa exists separately from samuit, it cannot be the only entity on which prakāśa could depend, because, if it were so, samuit being all-revealing, prakāśa cannot be confined to particular objects. To avoid this difficulty, the opponent has to concede that the objects require not consciousness alone, but also other circumstances to complete the causal machinery. If this is accepted, knowledge would be something manifested out of the consciousness as a result of certain conditions, which means that the atman is not of the form of knowledge, but the possessor thereof. Yāmuna says that the opponent is now nearer to his own viewpoint, that the atman is not mere consciousness, but that it is qualified by knowledge, although the opponent does not expressly name that quality, "knowledge".648

Stretching the argument further, the opponent says that knowledge which manifests, could only be an occasioned attribute of the self. He says that the manifestation of objects results from a corresponding activity inherent in the  $\bar{a}tman$ . Conjunction between a person and a village ( $gr\bar{a}mapuru\bar{s}a$ -samyoga) is given as the illustration. <sup>649</sup> The manifestation of objects in question,

although actually pertaining to entities other than the self (viz., pot, etc.), is a special characteristic of the self, being an effect. It may be noted that the conjunction (samyoga) between a person and a village cited here, is also a special feature of the person, because it is produced by the activity of "going" inherent in that person. Since the cognitive activity of the ātman is accidental, jñāna that results from it could only be accidental but not eternal, says the opponent.

Rejecting this as an unsound argument, Yāmuna cites as an exception the instance of a man who acquires land and such other property which come to him not as the result of any activity on his own part (akrijājanya) like purchasing, but as a natural bequeathal consequent on the death of his predecessors and such other conditions. Similarly, a man may acquire trees and crops, which grow in his field either of their own accord, or through some other agency, although he himslef does not grow them. It is thus clear that "ownership" (svatva) as such, does not arise form any activity of the man to whom it pertains. It is observed that factors like time  $(k\bar{a}la)$  and activity  $(vy\bar{a}p\bar{a}ra)$  also form part of the causal machinery in producing effects by their mere presence, though they are themselves, not involved in any activity. It has to be admitted, therefore, that "ownership" and such other factors do not require any activity of the person concerned.

The opponent cannot justify his argument by saying that  $j\bar{\imath}vana$  (living) itself is an activity, because it is a common but not special activity of the person, says Yāmuna. Yāmuna concludes that the manifestation of objects is due to the special property  $(as\bar{a}dh\bar{a}rana-dharma$  i.e.,  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ ), but not any special activity  $(as\bar{a}dh\bar{a}ranakriy\bar{a},$  i.e., cognitive activity) of the man that cognises those objects. Consciousness is thus a natural and hence an eternal attribute of the soul, as radiance is for the sun. 660

<sup>648.</sup> AS. p. 175 : "āgantukāti<br/>śayāsrayaņe vā nāmāntareņa jňānamevānigī kṛtamiti tadvānevāt<br/>mā āyātaḥ".

<sup>649.</sup> Vide Epistemology of the Bhāṭṭa School of Pūrva Mīmāmsā: p. 60.

The author then meets the objections raised earlier by the opponents against the eternal character of knowledge. It had been contended that knowledge is only occasioned by the sense-object contact and that judgements like "I know" (Present Tense) and "I knew" (Past Tense) show knowledge as conditioned by time. 651 Yāmuna says that these arguments are vitiated by the defect called "vyabhicāra". The effulgence of the Sun is given as an exception. Judgements like "The Sun is illuminating this region", "He had illuminated this region" and "He will illumine this area", in three different periods, prove that the radiance of the Sun, although eternal and natural in character, is conditioned by time. The opponents have to explain this phenomenon only with reference to the contact between the Sun's radiance and the regions radiated by it. Likewise, consciousness, though it is natural and eternal with the self, still appears to be conditioned and occasioned by the different objects manifested by its contact with sense-organs.

It is due to this accidental sense-object contact that knowledge appears to depend upon the sense-organs, etc. It is again due to this sense-object conjunction that one feels and says that knowledge is conditioned by time. Yāmuna asserts that the distinction in knowledge as connected with different periods of time is not natural with it, but due to the sense-object contact delimiting it. This assertion, he continues, is based on the fact that the self is cognised as invariably associated with knowledge. The atman is never experienced by anybody as an inert and insentient entity like a stone. It is, on the other hand, experienced as the possessor of knowledge. 652 The element, "air", for instance, could be apprehended only by reason of its being the substrate of the quality of touch (sparsa) which leads us to conclude that 'touch' is a natural attribute of air. Similarly, since the self is directly apprehended as the substrate of the quality 'knowledge', it is to be concluded that knowledge is its natural characteristic.

Activities like going and coming cannot be natural with the self, because it can exist even without these activities.<sup>653</sup>

The pūrvapaksin may, however, bring in the analogy of the physical body so as to disprove the above statement that knowledge is natural with the self. He explains that although the self is always found associated with the physical body, the latter cannot be accepted as the natural attribute of the former. Extending this analogy to knowledge, he states that the self, although found ever associated with knowledge, cannot be said to possess knowledge as its natural attribute.

Yāmuna, in reply, states that what the opponent has said is not universally true. It is not true that the self is always experienced as united with a physical body. To show that the claim of the opponent runs counter to practical experience, Yāmuna says that yogins who control their mind, experience the self as the entity "aham" (I), completely devoid of the idea of the physical body. It has earlier been pointed out that even in ordinary experience, the cognition of knowing (jānāmīti pratyayah) in such statements as "aham jānāmi" (I know) actually pertains to the self, which is completely dissociated from the body and such other factors. 655

Emphasising the point that the experience of the self is untainted by the cognition of the body, Yāmuna observes that in moksa not a single body accompanies the soul. There are indeed many kinds of bodies that the self may take up, such as human, divine and so on, according to its past deeds (good or bad), and these bodies are liable to birth and death. None of these bodies is known to accompany the  $\bar{a}tman$  in moksa, as does the mind, says Yāmuna. 656 It may be argued that the body in a subtle form

<sup>651.</sup> See p. 178 above.

<sup>652.</sup> AS. pp. 179-180 : "katham punaratra nirnayah? ...tādrūpyeṇaiva pratyakṣatvāt ; na hi jātucid acidrūpo 'yamātmā loṣṭādivaddṛṣṭacaraḥ", etc.

<sup>653.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 180 : "yo yatsvabhāvo na bhavati, sa tadvirahenāpi svarūpata upalabhyate, gamanādirahitatayeva devadattādiḥ".

 $<sup>654.\,</sup>Ibid:$  "yoginām praņihitamanasāmuparatabahirindriyāņām ca dehānusandhānaviraheņāpi ahamiti sphuṭamanubhavāt".

<sup>655.</sup> *Ibid*. p. 179.

<sup>656.</sup> *Ibid*: p. 181: "karmānugunyena suramanujādijātīyatayā bhidyamānāsu āgamāpāyinīsu tanusu manasa iva ekasya varsmanah svabhāvānubandhitvenāsrayitumasakyatvāt". This indicates that the author holds the mind as continuing to exist in the state of *mokṣa*. Also cf. *ibid*.: p. 53: "ata eva apavargadasāyāmapi mano 'nuvṛṭtiḥ".

(lingaśarira) accompanies the soul after death, although it does not belong in reality to the atman. The author does not agree that the lingasarīra exists at the time of cosmic dissolution (pralaya) and in release (moksa). 657 Even granting that the subtle body continues to exist after death, it is not enough to prove that it is a property of the ātman, because we do not perceive it. 658

Yāmuna then anticipates four views in opposition to the eternity of knowledge and refutes them all.

The first objection is that the soul should continue to be manifest (prakāśa) in states like deep sleep and swoon, if knowledge were natural with it. Yāmuna meets this objection by posing three alternative explanations for the term "prakāśa". 659 The term "prakāśa" could mean (i) the adventitious property produced by knowledge in objects, referred to as "jñātatā" or "prākatva" (manifestedness). It could mean (ii) knowledge; or (iii) it could not be something far removed from knowledge itself. The first alternative, held by the Bhattas, has already been refuted on the ground that jñātatā cannot be a property over and above knowledge. 660 Even if prakāśa be something other than jñāna, it can be explained that the quality tamas, veils it during deep sleep, says Yāmuna. 661 As regards the two other alternatives, they are not acceptable to the author, since ātmānubhava, according to these views, continues to exist in the state of deep sleep, etc.

The second objection raised is that if the self had ātmānubhava or experience of its own state, there should be some activity (vyavahāra) about it on the part of the self in the waking state. 662 Controverting this view, the author says that there could be no vyavahāra regarding the self, either physically or verbally (kāvika or vācika). In fact, no activity is possible with reference to the ātman. of taking it up or leaving it. 663 It may be contended that verbal activity is possible. Even as the knowledge pertaining to external objects which exists in inarticulate dumb persons  $(m\bar{u}ka)$  and young children  $(b\bar{a}la)$  does not find any verbal expression by reason of their defective or under-developed articulatory system, 664 so also, the ātmānubhava in question does not take up any verbal form, for want of necessary conditions like the functioning of the sense-organs.

The next objection is that ātmānubhava, if it exists in deep sleep, should be recollected as such, after waking, as in the case of other objects.665 Refuting this claim, the author says that latent impressions (samskāra) which are responsible for recollection, could form only when the mind assumes a state (vrtti). During deep sleep, all sense-organs including the mind being dormant, the mind cannot form itself into a state. Deep sleep, swoon, etc., are not mental states like awareness through sight, touch, etc., says Yāmuna. 666 Therefore, the atman during such states exists in its essential and natural form of knowledge.667

It cannot be contended, says Yāmuna, that the self can produce impressions necessary to rouse recollection by virtue of

<sup>657.</sup> Cf. ibid: p. 181: "Lingasya punaranuvrttāvapi apratyakṣatvāt", etc.

<sup>658.</sup> See p. 182 above.

<sup>659.</sup> ÅS. p. 181 : "....prakāśa iti padārthamātrasādhāraņam bodhajanyam prakatatädipadaparyayam dharmamabhipretya va 'yam prasangah, atha bodhameva, tadaviprakarsam vā?"

<sup>660.</sup> Cf. p. 174 above, where the Bhatta-view is refuted by Yamuna from the Prābhākara's standpoint.

<sup>661.</sup> Cf. AS. pp. 181-82: "bhave 'pi tamahpratibandhadapi anudayah sambhavi".

<sup>662.</sup> Cf. Ibid: p. 182: "atha matam-svāpādāvapi svānubhavasadbhāve jāgara iva vyavahāraprasanga iti..."

<sup>663.</sup> Ibid: p. 182: "kah khalvätmani vyavahärah? na hyasävädätum hātumupeksitum vā śakyah".

<sup>664.</sup> Cf. ibid: "kimanga, nirvikalpakabālamūkādivedanavişayo vyavahriyata eva?".

Cf. Epistemology of the Bhāṭṭa School of Pūrva Mīmāmsā: p. 193 665. Cf. AS. p. 183: "smṛtiprasaṅga iti cenna, avṛttityāt".

<sup>666.</sup> Ibid : "na hi mūrchā prasvāpo vā buddhivṛttiviśeso darśanasparśanādivat, yena smrtibījam samskāramādadhīvātām".

<sup>667.</sup> Ibid: "...nirvrttikasāmsiddhikabodhasvarūpena avasthānamātramātmanah".

its essential nature, knowledge itself. If this is admitted, knowledge being as eternal as the  $\bar{a}tman$ , there would be an unending series of impressions, so much so that there would be no moksa at all for the self. 668

Emphasising the point that the self-experience during deep sleep cannot be recollected, Yamuna says that there are no conditions favourable for it. Remembrance of a particular thing can take place under certain conditions: the experience of that thing should cease after giving rise to corresponding impressions. and the impressions, thus left, should be roused or stimulated by the observation of features like similarity that pertain to their respective objects. 669 But since the knowledge of the self is eternal like the self, it cannot be said to be present at a particular time and absent at other times.  $^{670}$  Since the experience of  $\bar{a}tman$  never terminates, no recollection of it can take place. Recognitory statements like "I am the same person as the one of yesterday" (ya evāham pūrvedyur-āsam sa evāhamadyāpi), however, contain an element of recollection in them. This recollection pertains only to the self in so far as it is connected with a particular time. but not to its essential form. 671 Moreover, impressions that give rise to recollection are laid only by experience that is clear (patīvas) and determinate (savikalpaka). 672 But the self-experience during deep sleep is vague (avisada) due to the presence of the quality, tamas, and is also indeterminate (nirvikalpaka) due to the absence of sense-object contact. The absence of recollection

regarding self-experience during deep sleep (svātmānubhava) is also explained with the help of an instance from common experience. Although we cognise our bodies and are aware that we possess them, we are not always body-conscious. We do not always recollect the form of our body and also the fact that we possess the body. Applying this analogy to self-experience (ātmānubhava), it is argued that although it exists in deep sleep, it is not recollected later, as if there were no such experience at all. 673

The fourth objection is that the states of samādhi and moksa cannot differ from that of deep sleep, if the self were everknowing. This objection is ruled out by Yamuna on the ground that the said distinction is quite palpable. In deep sleep, impressions of ignorance etc. continue to exist, and the knowledge of the self is contracted by tamas responsible for sleep. 674 In moksa, on the other hand, there is not a trace of any impression, and knowledge then blossoms in its original splendour. 675 Similarly, in the asamprajñāta type of samādhi, there is a complete cessation of all external sense-activity; the mind is absolutely controlled and nurtured in non-attachment (vairāgya) towards wordly objects. 676 The mind of a person in this type of samādhi is thus so ripe as to bring about release for that person. 677 But all these features are absent in deep sleep. So, no comparison can be drawn between deep sleep on one hand and release and samādhi on the other.

<sup>668.</sup>  $\mathit{Ibid}:$ "...anavaratopacīyamānasamskāratayā anirmokṣaprasangāt".

 $<sup>669.\,</sup>Ibid:$ p. 184: "anubhave ca svānurū pasamskārādhānani ruddhe sadršasambandhidaršanādi samudbodhitanijabījānu sāreņa smaraņa mupajāyate".

<sup>670.</sup> *Ibid*: "na ceha ātmasvarūpabodhasya jātucit nirodho janma vā; nityātmasattāprayuktatvāt".

 $<sup>671.\</sup> Ibid$ : "ya evaham pürvedyurāsam sa evāhamadyāpīti smṛtisambhinnapratyayo 'pi kālāvacchinnasvarūpagocaraḥ, na svarūpamātre".

<sup>672.</sup> Cf. ibid: pp. 184-85 : "paṭīyasā savikalpakenāvagamena smṛtibījamādhīyate"

 $<sup>673.\</sup> Ibid:$ p. 185: "sāmyācca ananubhavābhimānaḥ śarī rataddhāraṇaprayatnānanusandhānavat".

<sup>674.</sup> Ibid: "kleśavāṣanānām guṇābhibhavasya caikatra bhāvāt".

<sup>675.</sup> Ibid: p. 186: "itaratra tadatyantanivṛtteh".

<sup>676.</sup> There is a variant reading here given by all texts of ST: "samprajñāta". See Yogasūtra: I. 17: vitarkavicārānandā-smitārūpānugamāt samprajñātaḥ", and I. 18: "virāmapratyayābhyā-sapūrvaḥ samskāraśeṣaḥ anyaḥ".

 $<sup>677.~{\</sup>rm Cf.}~AS$ : p. 186: "asamprajňātasamādhāvapi paramavairāgyaśālinā paţutaranirodhasamskāreņa caritādhikāriņā apavargiņā viśeṣaḥ".

Reference has already been made to another view<sup>678</sup> which, purporting to be based on the Yoga school of thought, holds that the self, during deep sleep, is manifested by a particular state of mind called 'nidra'. The view seeks the support of recollections like "I had a good sleep", "I had a disturbed sleep" and "I had a very bad sleep". These statements, as already pointed out, <sup>679</sup> are not recollections but inferences based upon the relaxed, strained and such other conditions of the physical body and the senses, says Yāmuna. <sup>680</sup> That is why it is not necessary to accept nidra as a separate vrtti.

The Yoga-sūtra, "abhāvapratyayālambanā vṛttir nidrā" 681 on which the opponent bases his argument, is then explained by Yāmuna. By "nidrā" is meant not any state of mind, but only a general absence of all mental states that give rise to knowledge. The context (prakarana) in which this aphorism occurs is concerned with control of mind. 682 So, it is proper to explain that  $nidr\bar{a}$  is called here a "vṛtti" only in the sense that it should also be controlled and overcome like all other vṛttis. 683 So, the term, "vṛtti" in the sūtra, like the term "viparyaya" occurring in another sūtra, 684 should be interpreted in a secondary sense.

Since the Yoga school holds all knowledge as valid, and since it does not accept the  $anyath\bar{a}khy\bar{a}ti$  theory of error, the term "viparyaya" (illusion), should only be understood in a secondary sense as non-discrimination between the right and the wrong. Yāmuna says that the  $Ny\bar{a}yatattva$  of Nāthamuni<sup>685</sup> proves all knowledge as valid  $(arth\bar{a}vybhic\bar{a}ri)$ , a view to which Yāmuna himself contributes. In the light of this, the aphorism of Patañjali quoted above is taken as saying that all factors like  $nidr\bar{a}$  and viparyaya that stand in the way of moksa should efficiently be put down. <sup>686</sup>

Even if  $nidr\bar{a}$  be accepted as a particular state of mind, it only contributes to the author's stand that the self is everknowing. The advocate of the Yoga school only wants to prove that knowledge of the self in deep sleep is brought about by  $nidr\bar{a}$ , a state of mind. This in other words, means that the self is everknowing, which the author himself maintains. 687

It cannot be urged that  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ , resulting from the *vṛtti* which depends upon the sense-organs, could only be accidental. Stressing upon the indispensability of knowledge, Yāmuna says that even the presence of tamas during deep sleep will have to be accounted for only with the help of knowledge. Explaining this point, Yāmuna says that in deep sleep, the existence of tamas cannot be proved at all. It cannot be cognised by the mind, because all senses including the mind itself, are dormant in that

<sup>678.</sup> See p. 180 above.

<sup>679.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>680.</sup> See  $\overline{AS}$ : p. 187: "naivāmī vāsanāyonayah pratyayāh, api tu.... ānumānikā iti".

<sup>681.</sup> Yogasūtra: I. 10. Tattvavaisāradī of Vācaspati on it says: "jāgratsvapnavṛttī nāmabhāvaḥ tasya pratyayaḥ kāraṇam buddhisattvācchādakam tamaḥ; tadevālambanam viṣayo yasyāssā tathoktā vṛttir nidrā".

<sup>682.</sup> The " $p\bar{a}da$ " in which this aphorism occurs is called " $sam\bar{a}dhip\bar{a}da$ ".

<sup>683.</sup> Cf. Vrtti on Yogasūtra: I. 10: "pratyayaviśeso nidrā, sā ca samādhāvitarapratyayavat niroddhavyeti".

<sup>684.</sup> Yogasūtra: I. 8: "viparyayo mithyājñānamatadrūpa-pratistham".

<sup>685.</sup> See ĀS. pp. 187-88 : "nahyatadrūpapratistham mithyājñānam kiñcidasti, sarvasamvidāmarthāvyabhicārāt; sa *cādhikaraṇa*siddhah".

Cf. NPS. I. p. 91 : "yannāthamunimisrādyair vathārthakhvātisādhanam" etc.

<sup>686.</sup> See note 683 above. Cf. AS. p. 188 : "kaivalyabhāgi yaccit, tatpratyanīkatayā nidrāder niroddhyatvenopadeśaḥ"

<sup>687.</sup> See AS. p. 188.

<sup>688.</sup> Ibid. p. 189:

<sup>&</sup>quot;yatassvatassato bodhādrte pumso yathoditam tamassvāpādikālīnam na siddhyet hetvasiddhitah".

state and so no mental state can exist. It is also clear that *tamas* is not a self-luminous entity, 689 and claims made in its favour are sublated by practical experience. So, ultimately, the opponent has no choice other than to admit that knowledge, which forms the natural attribute of the self, is itself capable of manifesting all objects or features like *tamas* present in deep sleep. 690

Compressing these results into a syllogism, Yāmuna says that the self-luminous character of the self has to be admitted on the ground that it happens to be the knower. Entities like the pot, on the other hand, which are not self-manifest, are known to be invariably devoid of this special property, viz., "knowership" (jñātrtva). 691

The author then proceeds to refute the charge that there could be no distinction between one item of objective knowledge and another, if knowledge were an eternal attribute of the self. <sup>692</sup> For this purpose, he enters into a very elaborate discussion which takes us almost to the end of this section, on the real significance of the term, "prakāśa" (manifestation), which is referred to in the above syllogism. It has already been pointed <sup>693</sup> out that the term "prakāśa" can have three different meanings: "jñāna" (knowledge), "jñātatā" (manifestedness) and "samwidadūratva" (not being remote from knowledge).

The Naiyāyika interprets "prakāśa" as 'knowledge' and explains the relation between the self and knowledge as the one that subsists between the substratum and the thing subsisting in it (āśrayāśrayibhāva). But on this view, the negative

concomitance in the above-mentioned syllogism would be of the form: "Any object possessing a manifestation that is non-eternal or dependent upon other factors cannot be a knower, as for example, the pot". But the negation of specific features implies the acceptance of general ones, and so, the non-eternity of manifestation would also mean that the pot, etc. can have occasioned knowledge, which however, is absurd.

Even if the Naiyāyika explains the relation between jñāna and the self in terms of the subject-object relation (visavavisavibhāva), there crop up fresh difficulties. The self would then become the object of knowledge eternally.694 which goes against its self-luminous character. Moreover, since knowledge can manifest an object only when the senses function, the manifestation of the self by knowledge necessarily involves sensefunctioning and cannot, therefore, be eternal. 695 The mediacy of the causal machinery is inevitable, even when the self is to be manifested. It cannot be urged that dependence upon causal conditions becomes necessary only when the self of another person is cognised, for even the apprehension of one's own self involves the operation of causes, as when it is cognised by inference, verbal testimony and yogic perception. 696 It would also be mutually contradictory to say that the self can, at one and the same time, become the subject as well as the object of cognition regarding its own self. 697 The self, as a matter of fact. cannot be cognised in its essential form (svarūpa) by any means. Inference, verbal testimony and such other means can only

<sup>689.</sup> Ibid: "na ca svaprakāśam tamah".

<sup>690.</sup> Ibid .

<sup>691.</sup> This is a *kevalavyatireki* type of anumāna, which the author himself refuted above (pp. 163-64). The present statement is to be understood as having been made by the author from the standpoint of those who admit its validity.

<sup>692.</sup> See p. 178 above.

<sup>693.</sup> See p. 188 above.

<sup>694.</sup> See AS. p. 191 : "...vis esanisedhasya sāmānyābhyanujňāksepakatvāt āgantukam jňānam ghatādāvanumatamāpadyeta; atha tanmābhūditi visayavisayibhāva eva sambandhah sangīyeta, tato nityavajjňānavisayatvamātmanah prasajyeta".

 $<sup>695.\</sup> Ibid:$ "jñānaviṣayīkārasca sādhanaviseṣāyattatvena niyata iti na svābhāvikatvasambhavah".

 $<sup>696.\</sup> Ibid$ : "ātmano 'pi ānumānikāgamikayogaj<br/>ñānaviṣayikāre tatsāpekṣatvadarśanāt".

<sup>697.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 191 : "viruddhe ca ekasya ekakriyāyām karmakartṛtve".

establish the self in some of its aspects like eternity, subtlity and pervasiveness, but not in its essential form. So, the contention that the ātman in its essential form can become the object of eternal knowledge, becomes untenable. This difficulty cannot be got over by saying that the self can become the cogniser as well as the cognised, by its particular and general aspects. If this is admitted, the self would no more be self-manifest, like the word "sabda", says Yāmuna. When the word "sabda" is uttered, it has two phases in it — as the "revealer" (vācaka) and the "revealed" (vācya). "sabda" becomes "vācya" as the quality of audibility. It also becomes "vācaka" as appearing in a particular sequence. But in either case, "sabda" cannot be self-manifest. Thus, even the self would cease to become self-manifest, if the subject-object relation between it and knowledge is explained in terms of the general and particular aspects.

The next view is that of the Bhāṭṭa viz., that "prakāśa" is not identical with "jñāna". We have already seen that for him, "prakāśa" means "jñātatā", a feature that is common for all entities, sentient as well as insentient. It is due to this jñātatā that each and every entity is apprehended and spoken of as manifested. The relation in which jñātatā stands with reference to the entities is described as the one that exists between the basis and the based (āśrayāśrayi-bhāva). Since the ātman is said to be the knower, jñātatā which pertains to it, would also be eternal, contends the Bhāṭṭa.

"Prakāśa", according to the Prābhākara, is identical with "j $n\bar{a}na$ ". The relation between  $prak\bar{a}śa$  and the different entities it manifests is explained by him in terms of the capability of rendering those entities fit for  $vyavah\bar{a}ra$ , i.e, thought and discussion. To It is due to this  $jn\bar{a}na$  that we can uniformly refer

to the  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}tr$ ,  $j\bar{n}eya$  and  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  itself, as manifesting. The Bhāṭṭa-view that  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}tat\bar{a}$  is eternal like the  $\bar{a}tman$  would make  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  quite unnecessary, says the Prābhākara. It cannot be contended that  $prak\bar{a}sa$  is identical with consciousness for, then, even the pot, etc. with which  $prak\bar{a}sa$  unites, would become identical with consciousness. Even if  $prak\bar{a}sa$  is held to be different from consciousness and as manifesting to the soul, the possessor thereof, this does not include samvit in scope because "samvit" is consciousness itself, but not the possessor thereof.

The Bhāṭṭa's position becomes weaker if he says that the  $prak\bar{a}\acute{s}a$  of objects is dependent upon their relation with consciousness. Here, there are two difficulties. If this relation with consciousness is explained as inherence with the  $\bar{a}tman$  that possesses it, then pot etc., which are devoid of this feature would become unmanifest. If, on the other hand, this relation with consciousness (caitanyasambandha) is interpreted as 'becoming the object of consciousness', then, consciousness and the self would both become unmanifest. The untenability of this second alternative is said to have been shown by Nāthamuni in his  $Ny\bar{a}yatattva$ . The contention of the Bhāṭṭas that the self can be established only as the substratum of the  $prak\bar{a}\acute{s}a$  brought about by  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  and that  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  is inferred through the property called  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}tat\bar{a}$  are already refuted.

Yāmuna then points out that the Prābhākara fares no better than the Bhātṭa, in spite of his admission that knowledge is self-manifest. Even in his case, the difficulty of explaining the relation between  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  and other entities persists. According to the Prābhākara,  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  becomes fit for  $vyavah\bar{a}ra$  in the essential form as  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  itself; entities like the pot etc. as the objects of  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ ; and  $\bar{a}tman$  as the substrate of  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ . There is thus no uniformity of  $vyavah\bar{a}ra$  regarding the triple entity—  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ ,  $j\bar{n}eya$  and  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}tr$ , says Yāmuna.

<sup>698.</sup> Ibid: p. 192: "nityatvaniratiśayasūksmatvavyāpitvacitsvābhāvyādirūpeņa pratyagarthasya aupadeśikatvamānumānikatvamvā, na svarūpatah".

 $<sup>699.\,</sup>Ibid$ : rū pabhedena gamyagamakatvāngīkārapakṣe 'pakṣasyeva śabdāder na svatassiddhatvam".

<sup>700.</sup> Ibid. p. 193: "na jňānātireki prakāso nāma".

<sup>701.</sup>  $\mathit{Ibid}$ .: "yadvyavahāropajananānuguņam tat prakāsate ityucyate".

<sup>702.</sup> Ibid.: "cetanaiva hi sā, na cetayate".

<sup>703.</sup>  $\mathit{Ibid}$ . p. 194 : "...na vişayavişayibhāvah, tasyaivānirūpaṇāt; anirūpaṇam ca  $\mathit{bhr\bar{a}ntyadhikaraṇasiddh\bar{a}nt\bar{a}rambhe}$  samvitsiddhau ca anusamdhātavyam".

<sup>704.</sup> See p. 172 f. above.

The Bhāttas and the Prābhākaras, according to him, cannot offer any satisfactory explanation for the way in which jāāna, inherent in the self, can produce either prakāśa or vyavahāra in another entity. Proximity of causes like the senses cannot explain this phenomenon. A cause has its own limitations. It can give rise to an effect, but not also to the subsequent factors that are to be brought about by that effect itself. So, the senses and such other causes can produce knowledge, but not other features like prakāśa (manifestedness) or vyavahāra, which are to be produced by knowledge. For a product to fulfil its purpose, it is no longer necessary that there should be a continuity of the efficient cause which brought it into being. Thus, for a pot to be able to bring water, the co-presence of the potter is not necessary.

The two Mimāmsakas cannot also explain why jñāna, a product, should cease to exist when its efficient cause, viz., the sense-object-contact, ceases to exist. We know by experience that an effect like a jar, for instance, exists even when its causes like the potter's wheel and rod cease to exist. Therefore, one has to admit that in the process of an objective perception, consciousness goes out along with the (subtle) sense-organ to the particular object and gets connected with it, Tot says Yāmuna.

The theory set forth above can satisfactorily explain the invariable concomitance witnessed between sense-object-contact and knowledge. The Bhāṭṭa also cannot explain as to how  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}tat\bar{a}$  pertaining to the objects vanishes when  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ , its efficient cause, ceases to exist.

The opponents may bring in the analogy of Number  $(samkhy\bar{a})$  to justify their contention that an effect perishes when its efficient cause perishes. To explain, numbers two, three, etc., upto infinity are produced by enumerative cognition  $(apeks\bar{a}buddhi)$ . When the efficient cause, viz., the enumerative cognition ceases to exist, its products, viz., numbers two, etc., also cease to exist. Applying this analogy to the case of knowledge, the opponents argue that  $prak\bar{a}sa$  ceases to exist when its efficient cause, viz., knowledge, ceases to exist.

Objecting to this Yāmuna says that the non-existence of numbers 2, 3, etc., consequent to that of their enumerative cognition, is asiddha or unestablished. Therefore, like the number 2, the other numbers ranging from 2 to infinity should be accepted as lasting so long as their substrata, viz., entities, last, for the very reason that they too are numbers (samkhyā).

The eternity or non-eternity of the number pertaining to objects individually, depends upon the corresponding eternal or non-eternal character of the objects to which the number pertains. This is a fact admitted on all hands. It is therefore proper to maintain that the numbers 2, 3, etc., upto infinity  $(par\bar{a}rdha)$  last so long as their substrata, viz., the different entitites last, because the generality of numberness  $(samkhy\bar{a}tva)$  runs through them all, says Yāmuna.

The argument may further be stretched that oneness (i.e., the number 1) cannot be a number on the ground that it is not something over and above the very form of the object to which it pertains. Yāmuna says that oneness is also a number on the ground that it runs through all entities, as when we say "one pot", "one piece of cloth" and so on. To If oneness (ekatva) were identical with the very being of the entities, as held by some, there would not be a uniform and continuous cognition of "oneness" running through different objects. The contention that ekatva is of the form of the object would also land one in the trouble of equating things related by number 1, as for instance, a pot with a pice of cloth. The syllogism in this connection is: "Oneness is a number like the number 2, because, it is opposed

<sup>705.</sup> Cf.  $\bar{A}S$ . p. 195 : "na khalu labdhātmakam kāryam svanimittakāraṇamanuruddhya kāryamārabhate".

<sup>706.</sup> Ibid: "na ca nimittakāraņanāśe kāryanāśaḥ".

<sup>707.</sup> Cf. ĀS. p. 195 : "ata indriyena saha caitanyamapi nissṛtya tena tenārthena sannikṛṣyate".

Cf.  $\acute{S}$   $r\bar{i}$   $bh\bar{a}$  sya under II. ii. 27, pp. 810-811 : "...tattadarthavyavahārayogyatāpādanarūpatayā sāksāt pratīyamānasya jñānasya tattadarthasambandhāyattam tattadasādhāranyam; sambandhaśca samyogalakṣaṇaḥ"

<sup>708.</sup> AS. p. 197: "samkhyaiva sā; dravyāntare 'pyanuvṛtteḥ".

to other numbers like 3, 4, etc.,"<sup>709</sup> Here, the words "opposed to" mean "lacking in co-ordinate predication ( $s\bar{a}m\bar{a}n\bar{a}dhikaranya$ ) between the numbers 1 and 2."

It may further be contended that "two-ness" (dvitva), etc. do not last till their substrates last, on the ground that they, like conjunction (samyoga), are qualities pertaining to many entities. This argument is vitiated by the defect called "anaikānta" in the instance of " $n\bar{a}n\bar{a}tva$ " (diversity), which, though a quality pertaining to many entities, does not cease to exist so long as those entities exist. Yāmuna also proves that " $n\bar{a}n\bar{a}tva$ " is a number different from oneness and two-ness.

Having thus proved that two-ness (dvitva) etc., last till their substrata last, Yāmuna shows that these are not always cognised. Dvitva etc. are relative in nature. So, they are not cognised when the objects serving as their correlatives are not cognised and also when there is no desire on the part of a man to know them. The is thus shown by the author that the invariable concomitance between knowledge and its causes becomes accounted for, only when consciousness is admitted to connect its objects through the sense-organs.

Yāmuna also finds fault with the theory advanced by the Mīmāmsakas regarding the manifestation of external objects.  $J\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  which manifests objects, like the light of a lamp, manifests them only by going out and contacting them. It cannot be contended that  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ , being a formless entity  $(am\bar{u}rta)$ , cannot possess any activity. Yāmuna examines the possible definitions

for the term " $m\bar{u}rti$ ", as an element in the word, " $am\bar{u}rtatva$ ", and shows that on no ground can  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  be denied activity. The term, " $m\bar{u}rti$ ", can be interpreted in two ways: (a) as an entity occupying a limited area and (b) as an entity possessing touch. The first definition is too wide since it is applicable even to  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ , which is an entity  $^{714}$  and is inherent in the self. Yāmuna also proves that  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  is non-pervasive  $^{715}$  and that it is of unsurpassed rapidity. The second definition of " $m\bar{u}rtatva$ " is "sparśavattva"—having touch. This is not acceptable because śabda (sound) is an exception to this. Sound is devoid of touch, but yet it is capable of covering long distances. The mind is the illustration for another exception to the above rule, which, although devoid of touch, is accepted by the Vaiśesikas and the Mīmāmsakas as possessing activity. Tie

Consciousness which can thus contact objects through the senses, also possesses the capacity of revealing even objects of the past and the future. There is nothing wrong in such a conception, in as much as even philosophers of other schools<sup>717</sup> admit that entities of the past and future can become objects of the present cognition, that they can have manifestation, number and so on. As a matter of fact, for the *Siddhāntin*, objects of past and future periods of time exist even at the time of cognition, in

<sup>709.</sup> Ibid:

<sup>&</sup>quot;sankhyaikatā viruddhatvāt, dvisankhyevānyasankhyayā ekam dvāviti na hyasti sāmānādhikaranyadhīh"

<sup>710.</sup> Ibid. p. 198.

<sup>711.</sup> *Ibid*: "āpekṣikatvāt dvitvādeḥ, pratiyogyanavagrahāt bubhutsoparamāccāpi satyā evānavagrahaḥ".

<sup>712.</sup> ĀS. p.198 : "sarvam ca prakāśakam prakāśyavastusannikṛṣṭameva prakāśakam dṛṣṭam dīpaprabhādi".

<sup>713.</sup> *Ibid*: p. 199.

<sup>714.</sup> *Ibid*: "işyata eva sā caitanye". Cf. Śrībhāşya under II. ii. 27: p. 811 : "jñānamapi hi dravyameva; prabhādravyasya pradīpaguṇabhūtasyeva jñānasyāpi ātmaguṇabhūtasya dravyatvamayiruddham".

<sup>715.</sup> This applies to the state of bondage.

<sup>716.</sup> The Naiyāyikas thus speak of a type of relation called "jñānalakṣaṇa" to account for the illusory appearance of nacre as silver.

<sup>717.</sup> For the Vaisesikas, things of past and future become objects of the cognition belonging to the present time. For the Bhāṭṭas, objects of past and future not only exist now as the universal (jāti) but also possess the property called  $pr\bar{a}katya$ .

different states. <sup>718</sup> Just as our eye cognises the yonder stars, so also our  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$  can cognise entities belonging to the past and future, says Yāmuna. Stating this in a syllogism, <sup>719</sup> Yāmuna points out that the past and the future cannot be remote for  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$  on the ground that they, like  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$  and  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}tr$  can also be manifested by  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$ .

Consciousness being very rapid, 720 it appears as if it did not contact each and every entity that exists between the point of time in which it operates and that point to which its entity belongs, even as the sequence between the conjunction of a circularly rotating firebrand with a particular point in space, and its disjunction there from are not noticed, due to the speed of rotation.

Yāmuna also explains that consciousness which goes out from a sense-organ, manifests only those objects that are fit to be cognised by that particular sense, but not all objects with which it may come into contact. Thus, consciousness coming out through the eye, for instance, manifests only the colour, etc., of the objects that are fit to be seen, but not taste, smell and other qualities.<sup>721</sup> To drive home this point that only things fit for

718. Cf. AS. p. 200 : "api ca atītatayā anāgatatayā ca tāvapy adyāpi vidyete", i.e, as "pradhvamsābhāva" and "prāgabhāva" respectively.

Vedāntadešika in his Nyāyasiddhāñjana, V. (p. 242), quoting ĀS, says: "atītānāgatatayā tāvapyadyāpi vidyete iti tena rūpeņa bodhasannikarse nānupapattih iti ca taddravyasattayā samyogopapattirupapāditā; tatraivamāšayah—yathā kaiscidasatoreva bhūtabhavis yatos-sāmānyātmanā 'dyāpi vṛtteh prākatyās rayatvamupapāditam, tathā taddravyātmanāpi vṛtteh samyogo 'pyupapanna eva; višistenāsamyogašced višesākāreņa na prākatyamiti tulyamiti".

719. AS. p. 201:

nātītānāgate buddher dūre bhavitumarhataḥ buddhyā prakāsyamānatvād buddhiboddhṛsvarūpavat".

720. Cf. the following quoted by Deśika in his Nyāyasiddhāñjana, (V. p. 237), as from the Nyāyatattva of Nāthamuni:

"atyantavegitātyantaşauksmyam nirbharatā tathā svasattākālabhāvyāptir jñāne laksmacatuṣṭayam".

721. Cf. NK. II. p. 109: "...guņayogyatāmeva puraskṛtya indriyāṇi dravyamupādadate".

apprehension are cognised by consciousness. Yāmuna gives two instances. The first is that of the denotative capacity (sakti) of words like "cow". Though the word "cow" denotes both the universal (cowness) and the individual, it is only the universal that is taken as signified. The second example is that of an injunction like "dadhnā juhoti". It is proper to take this statement as specifying a particular type of oblation, viz., curds into the fire, but not as ordaining something already known, viz., the performance of a fire-sacrifice, which has already been covered by the injunction "agnihotram juhoti".722 Likewise, consciousness pertaining to particular sense-organs manifests only those entities that are fit to be cognised by those senses. but not all entities. In this connection Yamuna also quotes two passages, one from the Bhagavadgītā723 and another from the Manusmrti, 724 to show that consciousness comes out through the medium of sense-organs.

Having thus established that  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$  contacts its objects through the senses, Yāmuna proceeds to answer the objection raised earlier that consciousness being a guna, it cannot leave aside its substrate, the self, and go out to contact its objects. Yāmuna says that there is no question of  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$  leaving aside its substratum. It can go out and contact through the senses without at the same time severing its connection with the self. Even qualities like sound (sabda) and smell can move out of their substrata, says Yāmuna.

<sup>722.</sup> Taittirīya Samhitā: V. ix. 1.

<sup>723.</sup>  $Bhagavadgīt\bar{a}$ : II. 37b : "tadasya harati prajñām vāyurnāvamīvāmbhasi".

<sup>724.</sup> Manusmṛti: II. 99:

<sup>&</sup>quot;indriyāṇām hi sarveṣām yadyekam kṣaratīndriyam tadasya kṣarati prajñām dṛteḥ pādādivodakam".

<sup>725.</sup> See pp. 178-79 above.

<sup>726.</sup> Cf. AS. p. 203 : "dṛśyante ca guṇā api śabdagandhasūryālokaratnaprabhādayo gatimanto dharmyativartinaśca".

Desika interprets this in his *Nyāyaparisuddhi*: I. p. 182: "ātmasiddhau tu sabdasya dharmyativartitvagatimattvavādas tadāsraya-bhūtāvayavadvāreņeti netavyah"

But the illustration of *śabda* (sound) is again a matter of controversy. The Bhāttas think that sound is an eternal and all - pervasive entity. The Prābhākaras are of the view that sound is eternal and all-pervasive like the element ether, and that it is the special quality of the latter. They further say that though all-pervasive and ever-present, it is manifested only through some agents like the effort of human beings. It is due to these delimiting and manifesting agents that sound appears as confined only to a limited area and as possessing motion.

Refuting this contention, Yāmuna says that sound belongs to the element air, but not to the ether. This is proved by him on the ground that sound is produced invariably in association with air, like the quality of touch, which also belongs to air. Thus, when a drum is beaten with a stick or when a bamboo is split there is the production of air, accompained by sound. So it is to be admitted that the Mīmāmsaka's theory of sound being eternal is also untenable. Sound is non-eternal because it is produced and it is also a quality apprehended by a sense-organ, the ear, like the quality of smell. It is also possible to show that sound is produced by human effort because, like conjunction (samyoga), it is apprehended only after an activity like splitting the bamboo takes place.

It may be argued that human effort and such other factors are not the causes, but mere manifesters of sound. This is

cumbersome; there is economy of thought in maintaining that human effort etc. produce sounds rather than in making them the causes of manifestation of sounds. Another defect in the introduction of the revealing agent (abhivyañjaka) for sounds is this. A manifesting agent, when it manifests a particular object. manifests simultaneously all factors that exist in one and the same substratum and which are capable of being cognised by a single sense-organ. A lamp, for instance, reveals not only a pot, but also its colour, number, magnitude and such other factors. 729 Thus, if the air produced by the conjunction, disjunction etc. of various parts of the mouth is held to manifest but not produce sounds, it should, on the analogy of the lamp given above, manifest all sounds simultaneously. But this is not our experience. We find that the airstream originating from the throat, when it reveals the letter "ka", for instance, does not at the same time reveal other letters like "ga".

Yāmuna sums up the defects in the theory of manifestation of sound in five "kārikās". The Mīmāmsaka says that sound pertains to a single substratum, viz., ether, and that it is apprehended by a single sense-organ, the ear. As such, there is no reason as to why only certain sounds should be revealed but not all, by effort and such other factors. Since we do not in our common experience, observe that a single agent manifests all sounds simultaneously, it is proper to hold that sounds are caused

<sup>727.</sup> Yāmuna here goes against the normal view that śabda pertains to the ether. But Deśika explains this in his Nyāyasiddhānjana: p. 250: "ātmasiddhivacanam tu paramatena, ekadeśimatena vā ghatate".

He quotes Parāśara's view that sound belongs to ether alone: "Bhatṭaparāśarapādair vākyanirūpaņe śabdasya gaganaguṇatvamevābhihitaṁ—gaganaguṇaśabdādisvarūpasthitīḥ pravartayatā bhagavataiva..." etc.

<sup>728.</sup> Cf.  $Ny \bar{a}yakusum \bar{a} \bar{n}jali: II.$  p. 86: "na hi varnā eva tāvannityāḥ".

Ibid: p. 100: "śabdo' nityah utpattidharmakavāt, ghatavat".

*Ibid*: p. 109: "astu tarhi sabdo nityah nityākāsaikaguņatvāt tadgataparamamahatparimānavaditi pratyanumānamiti cenna, akāryatvasyopādher vidyamānatvāt". etc.

<sup>729.</sup> ĀS pp. 204-05 : "abhivyañjakāśca ekadeśāvasthitānekendriyagrāhyān yugapadabhivyañjanti, yathā pradīpo rūpasamkhyāparimāṇāni karakādīmścaikapradeśavartinaḥ".

<sup>730:</sup> Ibid: pp. 205-06:

<sup>&</sup>quot;nityatvavādinassabdā nirbhāgavyomavartinah|
srāvaņāscetyabhivyaktiniyame nāsti kāraņam||
desaikye grāhakaikye ca vyañjakaikyam hi darsitam|
tadabhāvāt prayatnotthamārutah kāraņam dhvaneh||
ata eva ca nānātvam pratyuccāraṇamiṣyatām|
kṛtasya kāraṇāyogāddhetupauṣkalyabhedatah||
kiñcodāttānudāttatvadīrghatvahrasvatādayah|
gādisthā yugapadbhānto na bhindyuh svāsrayān katham||
sthānaikyāpātasādṛsyāt pratyabhijñāpi naikyatah ||
pradīpapratyabhijneva jñāpitā bhedahetavah"

by the air originating from the articulatory regions by human effort. Since each act of pronunciation produces a separate sound, it is proper to assume that the sounds produced are indeed many, each being distinct from the others. Moreover, characteristics such as the *udātta* and the *anudātta* intonations and the length and shortness of utterance point out that their substrate, viz., the sounds, must also be mutually different. Recognitory statements like "so 'yam gakārah" ("This 'ga' is the same sound 'ga' which had earlier been apprehended") cannot be adduced as a proof for the eternity of sounds, says the author. The statement, "so 'yam gakārah", like the statement, "seyam jvālā" (which identifies flames erroneously due to their similarity), proceeds from a mistaken conception of the identity of sounds. This false identity is based on the similarity of the place of articulation.

Yāmuna has thus proved that sound, given in the above pages as an illustration, 732 is only produced, but not manifested by utterance and that it is a quality of air. Since sound is thus proved to be a quality of air, it follows that it can also travel along with its substratum, air. The analogy of sound thus serves to establish that knowledge can also go out and contact its objects.

But the Prābhākara again steps in to point out that even in this theory of the Siddhāntin, there is no uniformity of vyavahāra regarding the triple entity, jñāna, jñeya and jñatr. According to this theory, prakāśa ultimately becomes identical with the conjunction (saṃyoga) of knowledge with the objects or some other property born out of saṃyoga. Pointing out defects in the theory, the Prābhākara says that if prakāśa were identified with saṃyoga, then this definition being too narrow, it would apply only to the objects, but not to jñāna and jñatr. If, on the other hand, prakāśa is equated with saṃavāya (inherence) of jñāna, then again jñāna and its object will both become unmanifest since saṃavāya pertains to the ātman alone. If, as

the third step, mere relation (sambandhamātra) without any specification either as samyoga or samavāya were meant by the term "prakāśa", then this definition being too wide, it will apply even to the body and senses. The Prābhākara says that difficulty arises only when "prakāśa" is interpreted in terms of relations like samyoga and samavāya. So, without recourse to any relation as such, he tries to solve the problem by saying that jñāna, by its very nature (svabhāva), can render all vyavahāra possible with regard to the triple entity, jñāna, jñeya and jñātr. Jñāna, by itself, becomes responsible for the vyavahāra concerning itself; with reference to the ātman, its substratum, it is through samavāya; and with reference to the objects, it is through other causal factors like the sense-organs. So, no doubts can be entertained regarding this vyavahārānugunya of knowledge, since it is quite natural with it, concludes the Prābhākara.

Rejecting this claim, Yāmuna refers the Prābhākara to the defect earlier pointed out in the latter's theory. An effect that has come into being through an efficient cause, does not depend upon the same cause for bringing out its own subsequent activities also. To show the untenability of this argument, it has also been pointed out earlier that for a pot to be able to bring water, the co-presence of the potter was not necessary. Sense-object contact and such other causal conditions produce  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  alone. They cannot produce " $prak\bar{a}sa$ " and such other factors belonging to  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ . Even if the term "prak $\bar{a}sa$ " were interpreted as  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  that renders  $vyavah\bar{a}ra$  possible as claimed by the Prābhākara, there is still no uniformity of significance suggested by the term.

The term "vyavahārānuguņasamvedana" can be taken either as a compound of the Bahuvrīhi (possessive) or of the Karmadhāraya (appositional) type. As a Bahuvrīhi, it means "that which possesses knowledge responsible for vyavahāra". This definition applies only to the jñātr and jñeya but not jñāna because there can be no other jħāna which may be said to be possessed by jñāna. As a Karmadhāraya-compound, the expression means the "quality of being knowledge, responsible for

<sup>731.</sup> Cf. NK. II : pp. 100-01 : "evam vyavasthite 'numānamapyucyate śabdo 'nityah uttpattidharmakatvāt, ghaṭavat; na cedam pratyabhijňānabādhitam, tasya jvālādipratyabhijňānenāviśeṣāt".

<sup>732.</sup> See p. 204 above.

<sup>733.</sup> See p. 198 above.

<sup>734.</sup> Ibid.

vyavahāra", and this definition does not apply to both the jñeya and jñātr, for they are not identical with knowledge. Another incoherence regarding this theory of vyavahārānugunya is this: Ānugunya or conduciveness to vyavahāra should only be deduced from activity or vyavahāra itself. But even before the vyavahāra takes place, one feels and says one has cognised the object regarding which there is the vyavahāra in question. Therefore, the theory of the Prābhākaras lacks exactitude of definition, and so, is not acceptable.<sup>736</sup>

Having thus silenced his critics, Yāmuna gives out his own opinion on the matter. Basing his argument on the statement made by Nāthamuni in his Nyāyatattva, "anubhavādūram smṛtinimitittam," Yāmuna explains that "prakāśa" means not being remote (adūra) from anubhava or experience."

The term "adūratvam" can be interpreted as "being different from that which is remote" (dūrāt anyatvam) and also as "being opposed to what is remote" (dūrena viruddhatvam). Accordingly, "anubhavādūratvam" can be interpreted as (a) being different from that which is remote from anubhava, and also as (b) being opposed to that which is remote from anubhava. <sup>738</sup>

Explaining further, Yāmuna says that the  $prak\bar{a}s\bar{a}$  of a particular entity is nothing but a reference to the knowledge (bodha) and the entity in contact with that knowledge, which knowledge is not far from one's experience, as in the case of the illumination of external objects. Thus, when a particular region is illumined by the rays of the sun, we experience it and say that the region is illumined. This experience and the verbal activity  $(prakhy\bar{a})$  and  $prakhy\bar{a}$  proceed from the fact that the region is

not remote from the light of the sun.  $^{739}$  Just as the darkness of that particular region is dispelled by virtue of the region not being far from light ( $\bar{a}lok\bar{a}d\bar{u}ra$ ), so also in the case of the  $prak\bar{a}sa$  under discussion,  $aj\tilde{n}\bar{a}na$  regarding a particular entity gets dispelled by reason of the object not being far removed from  $j\tilde{n}\bar{a}na$ . It is due to this contiguity to  $j\tilde{n}\bar{a}na$  ( $j\tilde{n}\bar{a}n\bar{a}d\bar{u}ratva$ ) that an object like a pot and also the experience regarding it are simultaneously recollected after the experience itself has faded away, says Yāmuna.

By this interpretation of prakāśa as being not remote from knowledge, the doubts raised by the opponents regarding the possible relations like samyoga and samavāya become groundless, says the author. As a matter of fact, for him, samyoga is the only possible relation. Samyoga, in other words, is a very close contiguity which again is identical with the term "nairantarya" (not being separated by space). Samyoga between the inseparables (ayutasiddha) is called samavāya (inherence) in the Vaiśesika system. But this comes under samyoga. So, no argument can be made against this theory of prakāśa on the assumption of samavāya being a separate entity, says Yāmuna.

A second definition of  $prak\bar{a}sa$  is also given by Yāmuna. Prakāsa is the capacity to give rise to  $vyavah\bar{a}ra$  and this capacity is characterised by its not being far from knowledge.<sup>741</sup>

<sup>735.</sup> AS. pp. 207-08.

<sup>736.</sup> *Ibid* p. 208. The *Nyāyatattva* from which this is quoted, is yet to be recovered. This quotation points out that remembrance takes place only when there is experience. It can be explained thus: "*Prakāśa* is being not far from experience (i.e., being nearer to experience) and the contiguity is itself the cause of remembrance".

<sup>737.</sup> *Ibid*: "etaduktam bhavati—samvidadūratvam prakāśa iti". 738. *Ibid*: p.209: "bhavatvanubhavādūram dūrādanyad virodhi vā tadbhāvaśca prakāśatvam kimatra bahu jalpyate".

<sup>739.</sup> Ibid: p. 210.

<sup>740.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 211: "nairantaryapadaparyāyamatyantasāmīpyamātram ca samyogah". Also cf. "atyantasāmīpyam samyogah" quoted by Desika in his *Nyāyasiddhāñjana*, p. 263, as from the 7th chapter of the 'Prameyapāda' of the *Nyāyatattva*.

The part dealing with the inclusion of samavaya under samyoga is lost, as is clear from the following statement of AS: p. 211: "yathā ca samyogāntarbhāvah samavāyasya, tathā sambandhavimarśe darśayisyāmah".

Desika, interpreting the passage, "nairantarya..." etc. in his Nyāyasiddhāñjana, V. (p.242). says: "tadapi parābhyupagatasamavāyānabhyupagamāt, svamate samavāyasya svarū paviseṣānatirekāt atiriktasambandhābhāvaparam, na tu guṇaguṇinoḥ samyogalakṣaṇasambandhaparam"

<sup>741.</sup> This, to some extent, admits the Prābhākara's definition of 'prakāśa'.

Though prakāśa in thus capable of contacting all entities, it can only manifest particular entities through particular senses, but not all. For example, the *jñāna* coming out through the eve manifests only objects that are fit to be seen, but not those that fall outside the purview of the eye. So with other objects. The reason for this specific manifestation is twofold, says Yāmuna. Though the causal conditions necessary to produce prakāśa are present in their plenitude, prakāśa may not still arise with regard to a given entity when that entity is obscured by some other factor, or when it is not fit for cognition. Yāmuna cites the instance of the colour and taste of the waters of the Yamunā to support the above. Though the eve may be in contact with the waters of the Yamuna, the colour whiteness is not cognised since it is obscured by the blueness of its surface. The taste of the water is also not apprehended by the eye since it is not fit to become the object of ocular perception.

This marks the end of the discussion on the significance of the term ' $prak\bar{a}$ śa'. The upshot of the above discussion, says Yāmuna, is that the  $\bar{a}tman$  which possesses  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  as its very being and also as its quality, cognises objects through the medium of the sense-organs. The sense-organs of the sense-organs.

Yāmuna then meets the objection raised earlier<sup>744</sup> by the opponents that knowledge, on the analogy of pleasure and pain, could only be a special property of the soul-and thus, could only be occasioned but not be natural with the soul.

Knowledge, Yāmuna says in reply, is a quality dependent upon the very existence of the self, its substrate. It is also found in experience that qualities dependent upon the being of their substrate, last so long as their substrata last. Since it has already been detailed in the preceding pages that  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  depends upon the

very being of the self, it has to be admitted that it lasts so long as the self lasts, that is to say, that it is eternal but not accidental.

Yāmuna also points out that pleasure and pain cited as instances by the critic, cannot be qualities of the self. They are only the relaxed and uneasy states of the sense-organs. This point too has been indicated already. The position cannot be improved by giving  $r\bar{a}ga$  and dvesa as the illustrations in the place of sukha and duhkha; for, even they are not directly the qualities of the self. Rather, they are different states of mind. This too has been pointed out earlier. The  $Brhad\bar{a}ranyaka$  passage, " $k\bar{a}massankalpah$ " etc., and also the  $Bhagavadg\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  passage " $icch\bar{a}$  dvesah" etc., are quoted by the author to corroborate the view that  $r\bar{a}ga$  and dvesa are mental states.

But it may be pointed out that the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$  passage referred to here, viz., "icchā dveṣah sukham duhkham saṅghātah cetanādhṛtiḥ", clearly states that  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ , indicated by the term "cetanā", cannot even be a property of the self. But Yāmuna says that the proper interpretation of the above passage should be like this: "cetanādhṛtiḥ" should not be split into two words as "cetanā" and "dhṛtiḥ". It should be taken as a single compound, meaning the body (kṣetra). In other words, the term "cetanādhṛtiḥ" defines the body as a collocation (saṅghāta)

<sup>742.</sup> This discussion was started on p. 194 above.

<sup>743.</sup> Cf. AS. p. 212:

<sup>&</sup>quot;ato yathoktanityātmā svatascaitanyavigrahah jñānasvabhāva evānyat karanaih pratipadyate"

<sup>744.</sup> See p. 178.

<sup>745.</sup> See p. 173 above. This is only an alternative view, as he is going to say later that *sukha* and *duhkha* are different states of *jñāna*, which is tantamount to saying that they pertain to the self. Cf. *Nyāyasiddhāñjana*: V. (p. 243): "sukhaduhkhe nātmadharmau ityādisu vaibhavavādena, matāntarena vābhihitam..." etc.

<sup>746.</sup> See p. 173 above.

<sup>747.</sup> I. v.3: kāmassankalpo vicikitsā śraddhā aśraddhā dhrtiradhṛtir hrīr dhīr bhīrityetat sarvam mana eva".

<sup>748.</sup> Bhagavadgītā: XIII. 6: "icchā dveṣassukham duḥkham saṅghātaścetanādhṛtiḥ etat kṣetram samāsena savikalpamudāhṛtam".

controlled or supported by knowledge. The body is, indeed, seen to possess activity by means of  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ . This definition is supported by Yāmuna through quotations from the  $Brhad\bar{a}ranyaka$   $Upanis\,ad^{750}$  and the  $Visnupur\bar{a}n\,a^{751}$  which mention that the Supreme Being possesses everything as His body, including the individual selves. These passages are very significant because they form the basis of the  $\bar{a}tmasar\bar{i}rabh\bar{a}va$  that subsists between the Supreme Person on one hand and the individual self and the prakrti on the other, which became one of the cardinal points of Rāmānuja's philosophy.

It may, however, be pointed out that the Brhadāranyaka text "kāmassankalpah..." quoted above, also mentions dhīh or jñāna as a quality of the mind, but not of the self. But Yāmuna says that the term, "dhīh", here means "utprekṣā" or 'conjecture' but not "jñāna". As a matter of fact, the self-same Ūpaniṣad mentions elsewhere that "jñāna" is a natural attribute of the self: "na vijñātur vijñāter viparilopo vidyate". And "na hi draṣṭur dṛṣṭeh viparilopo vidyate avināsitvāt". Here the passage, "na hi draṣṭuh", states in clear terms that since the knower (draṣṭā) is eternal (avināsin), knowledge (dṛṣṭi) that qualifies him is also eternal. This, in other words, means that knowledge depends upon the very being of the self for its existence.

Yāmuna here controverts the interpretation offered by the Advaiting for this passage, that "drastā" is an attribute (viśesana) of the term, "drsti" (viśesva). They construe the terms thus: "There is no annihilation of knowledge (drsti) which is of the form of the knower  $(drast\bar{a})$ " and they ultimately identify the atman with drsti. 765 But this interpretation is defective in two ways, says Yāmuna. Firstly, if the term "drastā" were the visesana of drsti, it would then be necessary that the term should be in the feminine gender. Secondly, if the above argument were correct, the probans referred to in the śruti-text. viz., "avināsitvāt" becomes identical with the probandum itself. viz., "avināsitva" (na viparilopah—na vināsah—avināsitva). In other words, there would be no reason worth the name at all. The Vedic text in question would then mean: "There could be no destruction of knowledge, which is of the form of the knower. because it does not perish", where the defect of sādhvasamatva (identity between the probans and the probandum) is quite palpable.

Even if the term "dṛṣṭi", is taken as speaking of the real form of the self (drastā), the reason, "avināsitvāt", would turn out to be "aprayojaka" (ahetu), which means that it cannot establish its probandum, viz., the indestructibility of the self (avināsitva). Such an interpretation would also contradict the positions taken by the opponents. Thus, for the Naiyāyika who maintains that the knowledge of the self is only accidental (kādācitka), it would be contradictory to say that the self is of the form of knowledge, which would ultimately mean that knowledge is eternal. Similarly, for the Advaitins who do not accept the eternity of the "aham" (I) it would be contradictory to say that the self, which is none other than the "aham", is

<sup>749.</sup> ĀS. p. 214: "cetanayā dhriyamāņassanghāto dehah".

Cf. Rāmānuja's commentary on the  $G\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ : XIII. 6: "ādhṛtirādhāraḥ, sukhaduḥ khe bhuñjānasya bhogāpavargau sādhayataśca cetanasyādhāratayotpanno bhūtasaṅghātaḥ", etc.

<sup>750.</sup> V. 7: "yasya pṛthivī śarīram, yasyāpaśśarīram, yasyātmā śarīram". This is the Mādhyandina-reading.

<sup>751.</sup> I. 22. 86 : "yāni mūrtānyamūrtāni yānyatrānyatra vā kvacit santi vai vastujātāni tāni sarvāņi tadvapuḥ".

Yamuna quotes only the second half of the second line.

<sup>752.</sup> I. v. 3.

<sup>753.</sup> IV. iii. 30.

<sup>754.</sup> IV. iii. 23. Udayana in his *Nyāyakusumāñjali*: V. (p. 112.) takes this passage as showing that the knowledge of the Supreme is eternal. Cf.: "tadenamevambhūtamadhikṛtya śrūyate na draṣṭur dṛṣṭer viparilopo vidyate avināstvāt iti".

<sup>755.</sup> Cf. Upadeśasāhasrī: (Minor Works of Śankara): śl. 8:

<sup>&</sup>quot;mānasyas tadvadanyasya dṛśyante svapnavṛttayaḥ draṣṭur dṛṣṭistato nityā śuddhānantā ca kevalā".

Cf. Brahmasiddhi: pp. 7-8: "api ca ekatva evāyam drastrdršyabhāvo 'vakalpate; drastureva cidātmanastathā vipariņāmād vivartanādvā...na tarhi paramārthato dršyam dršyate, paramārthataśca dršyamānam drastrvyatiriktamastīti durbhanam ...evam ca drasturavyatireko dršyasyāmnāyate ātmani vijnāte sarvamidam vijnātam bhavatīti".

eternal ( $avin\bar{a}sin$ ). It is, therefore, proper to construe the reason " $avin\bar{a}sitv\bar{a}t$ " along with the term "drastuh", rather than with "drsteh", since this is fully corroborated by many  $ny\bar{a}yas$  and scriptural statements. Therefore, when it is said that the self exists, it follows as a corollary that its attribute 'knowledge' also exists on the ground that it depends upon the very being of the self, even as light ( $prabh\bar{a}$ ) depends upon the flame of a lamp, for its existence.

In the light of this, the above text "na hi draṣṭur dṛṣteh", <sup>766</sup> means that self-luminous knowledge, which forms an essential property of the self never ceases to exist, either in the state of bondage or release. And this knowledge, due to its manifold relation with manifold objects, internal as well as external, attains several designations such as perception, smell, taste, touch, inference, and the like. Yāmuna quotes three more passages from the Bṛhadāranyaka<sup>767</sup> to support the view that knowledge forms an inseparable and essential characteristic of the ātman.

Quoting three passages from the *Chāndogya* <sup>768</sup> and one more from the *Brhadāranyaka*, <sup>769</sup> Yāmuna says that even in the state of *mokṣa* which is characterised by the absence of the physical body, senses, etc., the self continues to have knowledge. It is therefore clear that knowledge is an essential characteristic of the self. Yāmuna also adduces one statement from the

Viṣṇupurāṇa, 760 one identified as from the Mahābhārata 761 and three verses from the Viṣṇudharma 762 as further proofs for this view. The ślokas from the Viṣṇudharma quoted by him explain in plain language that knowledge is quite natural and eternal with the ātman. It is never created or brought anew into existence, because it is always present. Knowledge and such other characteristics of the self can only be revealed or manifested by putting down the undesirable qualities that obscure their manifestation. Therefore knowledge and such other characteristics of the self are eternal. The Brahmasūtra, "jño 'ta eva" 763 ('That is why the self is the knower') is also adduced by the author in support of the above.

Having thus established on the strength of logical arguments and scriptural statements that  $Dharmabh\bar{u}ta$ - $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  is eternal in character, Yāmuna proceeds to explain his earlier statement that knowledge which is natural to the self, gets different designations under different conditions of contact with the objects. He states that either the different types of relations of objects with knowledge, or  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  itself in relation to those objects, get different designations such as "niścaya" (certitude),

## 760. VI. vii. 22:

"nirvāṇamaya evāyamātmā jñānamayo 'malaḥ duḥkhājñānamalā dharmāḥ prakṛteste na cātmanaḥ".

Yāmuna quotes here (p. 218) the first line of the verse. 761 See AS. p. 218: "jyotiṣāmapi tajjyotiḥ". See commentary on it by P.B. Annangarācārya.

762.  $V\bar{\imath}$  snudharma of Saunaka (from Bhavişyatpurāna) : ch. 104: 55-57 :

"yathā na kriyate jyotsnā malaprakṣālanān maṇeḥ doṣaprahāṇānna jñānam ātmanaḥ kriyate tathā yathodapānakaraṇāt kriyate na jalāmbaraṁ sadeva nīyate vyaktim asataḥ sambhavaḥ kutaḥ? tathā heyaguṇadhvaṁsād avabodhādayo guṇāḥ prakāśyante na jāyante nityā evātmano hi te".

Cf. Brahmasūtra: IV. iv. 1: "sampadyāvirbhāvassvena sabdāt".
763. Brahmasūtra: II. iii. 19. Also cf. Śrībhāṣya: I. i. 1: p. 135.
764. Cf. ĀS. p. 161:
tadevam citsvabhāvasya pumsassvābhāvikī citiḥ
nānāpadārthasamsargāt tattadvittitvamasnute".

<sup>756.</sup> Brhadāraņyaka: IV. iii. 23.

<sup>757.</sup>  $\mathit{Ibid}: VI.\ v.\ 13:$  "sa yathā saindhavaghano 'nantaro 'bāhyah'' etc.

Ibid: VI. iii. 9: "svena bhāsā, svena jyotiṣā".

Ibid: VI. iii. 6: "ātmajyotissamrāditi hovāca".

<sup>758.</sup> VII. ii. 6 : "na paśyo mrtyum paśyati ... sarvam ha paśyah paśyati".

VIII. xii. 3: "nopajanam smaran".

VIII. xii. 6: "sa vā eṣa etena daivena cakṣuṣā...paśyan ramate".

<sup>759.</sup> IV. iv. 14 : "jānātyevāyam purusah jñātavyam tu na veda".

"samśaya" (doubt) and the like. 765 Accordingly, he defines niścaya or certitude as a firm and close conjunction (drd hasamyoga) of consciousness with a single entity. If this conjunction is not firm and close, and also if it pertains to many entities but not one, then it goes by the name of "samśaya" or 'doubt'. Again, if this conjunction (samyoga) of jñāna with objects follows the latent impressions (samskāra) of previous experience, it is called 'recollection' (smarana). 766 Therefore, it is proper to hold that jñāna in general regarding a particular object is the contact of dharmabhūta-jñāna with the particular object.

It cannot be urged that even the objects become possessors of  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$  on the ground that they too have contact with  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$ , points out the author. This objection is groundless because 'knowership'  $(j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}trtva)$  pertains to the self through  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$  but not to the object, even as the illumination of an external object does not belong to that object.

Although an object is said to be manifested when it is in contact with the light of the Sun, and though this contact is common to both the object and the light, it is still proper to say that the capacity to manifest rests only with the Sun, but not with the object. Likewise, in the process of an objective manifestation, it should be admitted that the capacity to know pertains only to the self, but not to the object as such. From the same analogy, it can be deduced that the self contacts different objects through its attributive knowledge and attains knowledge regarding those objects.

Therefore it has to be concluded that the self has  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  as its essential characteristic and that it is always aware with regard to its own self. With regard to the objects, however, it (the self) may or may not know, owing to different causal factors.

Though the self is thus essentially characterised by jñāna and is ever-luminous, it is still not grasped clearly and discriminately. Yāmuna says that the acceptability of the different types of inference and other statements detailed in the preceding pages is based on the consideration that they aim at giving us an insight into the real nature of the self. But the means of knowledge like anumāna and even āgama, cannot, after all, give us any direct experience of the self. That is why those who are unsatisfied with the mediate knowledge of the self provided by those means of knowledge, take to the practice of yoga (concentration) and try to achieve a direct and clear experience of the ātman by controlling the mind. The fact that immediate knowledge regarding the self arises only at the culmination of the highest stage of concentration (bhāvanāprakarsaparvanta) is admitted on all hands. Concluding this topic, Yāmuna states that the ātman which is self-manifest, shines forth more vividly and directly with the help of scriptural texts, inferences and yogic perception.767

The author then takes up the next topic for discussion, viz., the duration  $(k\bar{a}l\bar{a}vaccheda)$  of the existence of the self. 768

The first critic introduced by Yāmuna, who does not admit an eternal self, is the Buddhist. According to him, the self exists only for a single moment and becomes extinct in the next moment. The entire train of misery in this world is mainly due to the conception of an eternal self. The momentary character of the self, he argues, is to be understood from the fact that it exists. Any entity that exists should exist only for one moment. Since the self is an existent entity, it has to be admitted as lasting only for a moment. The Buddhist further explains that the existence (sattā) of entities is none other than their character of leading

<sup>765.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 219: "tadevamātmasvabhāvabhūtasya caitanyasya viṣayasams leṣavis eṣeṣu nis cayasams ayādivyavahārabhedah, tattadviseṣabhāji caitanye vā". It is the second alternative that the author contributes to; "samsaya", etc. are not ends in themselves since they are only different states of consciousness.

<sup>766.</sup> *Ibid.*: "caitanyasya vişayena drdhasamyogo hi niścayah, tasyaiva bahubhir yugapadadrdhasamyogah samśayh, jñānavāsanānusārena samśleşahsmaranamityādih".

Cf. Nyāyasiddhāñjana: VI. (p. 258): "asmanmate tu anubhavasaṃskārasmrtinām jñānāyasthāviśeṣarūpatvānna kaściddoṣaḥ".

<sup>767.</sup> ĀS. p. 222:

evamātmā svatassiddhyan āgamenānumānataḥ yogābhyāsabhuvā spaṣṭaṁ pratỳakṣeṇa pratīyate".

<sup>768.</sup> *Ibid* p. 17:

<sup>&</sup>quot;dehendriyamanahprāṇadhībhyo 'nyo 'nanyasādhanah nityo vyāpī pratikṣetramātmā bhinnassvatassukhī". The author now undertakes to explain the second line of this verse.

to a fruitful activity ( $arthakriy\bar{a}k\bar{a}rit\bar{a}$ ). It is not possible to ascribe existence to an entity if it does not lead to a fruitful activity. Continuing, the Buddhist says that this fruitful activity is invariably associated with momentariness ( $ksanikat\bar{a}$ ) and that this type of existence (leading to fruitful activity) cannot be met with in an entity that is not momentary. He further explains that there are only two possible ways in which the objects of the world can give rise to fruitful activity, either simultaneously (yaugapadya) or in succession (krama). There is not a third way open here. Just as in the case of two alternatives of being ( $bh\bar{a}va$ ) and non-being ( $abh\bar{a}va$ ), if one is absent, the other one should necessarily exist, so also, objects that give rise to a fruitful activity can do it either in a sequence or simultaneously, but not in a third way; and these characteristics cannot be found in a non-momentary entity.

It is a matter of regret that the text of  $\bar{A}tmasiddhi$  breaks off at this place.

## (ii) The Iśvarasiddhi.

In this section Yāmuna undertakes to establish that the entire universe is under the control of a single Supreme Being. He sets out the arguments advanced by the Mīmāmsakas and the Naiyāyikas, against and for such a conception. As we have already pointed out at the beginning, 769 this section, second among the three Siddhis comprising the Siddhitraya, also suffers from gaps like the other two Siddhis. The very opening verse of this Siddhi leaves room for the assumption that the beginning of this section might have been lost. 770 The conclusion of this section also is somewhat abrupt, and it is likely that the original text must have been still larger and complete. It has also been mentioned earlier 771 that the vulgate text of the Iśvarasiddhi sets

forth the arguments of the Mimämsakas against the existence of a Supreme Creator-God for this universe, the refutation of it by the Naiyāyika, a further criticism of the Naiyāyika's view by the Mīmāmsaka, and a subsequent refutation of the Mīmāmsaka's position by the Naiyāyika. If the available text of the *Īśvarasiddhi* is to be taken as complete in itself, it would mean that Yāmuna adopted the Naiyāyika's method of Inference (anumāna) for proving the existence of God. But this seems to be improbable because, for the Visistadvaitins, God can be established only through scriptural authority. Logic can only have a secondary place in proving things. It cannot independently lead to any conclusion, particularly so in proving the existence of the Supreme Person. Moreover, the inferences employed by the Naivāvika could establish a Supreme Being who is a mere nimitta or an efficient cause of the universe. For the Visistadvaitins, on the other hand, the Supreme Being is both the material and the instrumental cause of this world (upādāna and nimitta).772 This can be proved only by resorting to the scriptures, but not to the means of knowledge called Inference (anumāna). We have already seen in the Ātmasiddhi<sup>773</sup> that Yāmuna holds anumāna as incapable of proving the existence of the individual self even, not to speak of the Supreme Being. In such a case, it is highly improbable that Yāmuna would have written a separate section merely for putting forth the Naiyāyika's inferences regarding the existence, supremacy, etc. of the Lord, in relation to the creation of the world.

So it seems fairly certain that there must have originally existed a further portion setting out the author's own view (siddhānta) on the matter as a Visiṣṭādvaitin, based not on pure logical arguments as in the case of Nyāya, but on scriptural statements. The term "pūrvapakṣa" occuring in the opening

<sup>769.</sup> See p. 140 above.

<sup>770.</sup> IS. p. 225, śl. 1:

<sup>&</sup>quot;tatra kasyacidekasya vaśe viśvam pravartate iti sādhayitum pūrvam pūrvapakṣam pracakṣmahe".

<sup>771.</sup> See p. 140 above.

<sup>772.</sup> Vide *Nyāyasiddhāñjana*, III.( pp. 230-32), where it is pointed out that inferences could only prove God as an efficient cause of world-manifestation. Here, on p. 232 the Vedāntin's act of refuting inference as a means of proving God's existence is defended and the Vedāntic view that God is both the *upādāna* and *nimitta* for the world is justified.

<sup>773.</sup> Cf. p. 139, AS: "....ānumānikīmapi ātmasiddhimaśraddadhānāḥ śrautīmeva tām śrotriyāḥ saṅgirante".

<sup>774.</sup> Vide p. 225, śl. lb : "iti sādhayitum pūrvam  $p\bar{u}rvapakṣam$  pracakṣmahe".

verse of the *Iśvarasiddhi* supports the view that this section must have consisted of the Siddhanta-view also. Another evidence for this view is the fact that the Mimamsakas, after denying the possibility of applying pratyaksa (perception) as a means of establishing the Supreme Being, poses two alternatives to the Naivāvika, whether anumāna or āgama could establish the desired end. 775 The available text contains only the examination of anumāna, but not that of āgama. So, it is easy to surmise that the original text of the *Īśvarasiddhi* also consisted of the Mīmāmsaka's critique of the scripture as a proof of the existence of God. The fact that the  $\dot{sastray}$  onitva section of the  $\dot{S}r\bar{\imath}bh\bar{a}sya^{776}$ brings the entire vulgate text of the *İśvarasiddhi* under the pūrvapaksa and also that the existence, supremacy, etc. of God have been proved there on scriptural authority, in conformity with the Vedantic view after refuting the Naivavika's arguments, lends strong support to the view that the available text of *Īśvarasiddhi* is only a part, or rather an incomplete fragment of a larger original text.

The Mimāmsaka happens to be the most uncompromising adversary of the concept of an Omniscient Supreme God, whether on the basis of logic or of verbal testimony. The view that such an Omniscient Being is necessary to account for the world-order is also contradicted by him as unsound. He is also against the popular view that the creation and dissolution of the universe are simultaneous operations. A strict believer in the efficacy of the ritual as he is, the Mīmāmsaka declares that human beings can themselves produce the things needed for their own enjoyment, through the performance of various rites ordained by the scriptures.

To start with, the Mimāmsaka points out that there are two difficulties in admitting a Supreme Person of omniscience and omnipotence. Firstly, none of the well-known means of knowledge  $(pram\bar{a}na)$  is capable of proving His existence. Secondly, there are clear contradictions to such a conception. The means of

knowledge known as "pratyaksa" (perception) cannot prove His existence. Here, there are two alternatives: perception may be ordinary (laukika) or yogic (pertaining to the yogins). The perception of ordinary human beings, which is specific in character, cannot cognise the entire range of objects obtaining in this world. Since the Supreme Being sought to be established is said to be capable of having a direct perception of all entities in the universe, the means of knowledge that purports to cognise Him should also be capable of embracing all entities, including those of the past and future, those that exist in distant regions and even those that are inscrutable and imperceptible. But the fact that the ordinary perception is bound by certain laws, spatial and temporal, wards off the instrumentality of perception towards the establishment of the Supreme Being. Perception can apprehend only objects of the present moment, those that are fit for cognition falling within its scope. Because of these limitations. ordinary perception can lay no claims to such an over-all character.

Even the perception of *yogins* is no exception to the rules that govern ocular perception in general, says the Mīmāmsaka.<sup>777</sup> As the very name 'perception' (*pratyakṣa*) would suggest, *yogic* perception also cognises only objects that exist in the present period of time (*vidyamānaikagocara*), but not those of the past or future, even as the intuitive insight called "*pratibhā*" found in some persons does not have all-round cognition. Even in the

<sup>775.</sup>  $\mathit{Ibid}.$ p. 233 : "nāpi pramāņāntaram—tat khalu anumānam, āgamo vā."

<sup>776.</sup> Vide Śrībhāṣya under Brahmasūtra I. i. 3 : "śāstrayonitvāt".

<sup>777.</sup> ĪS. p. 228.

<sup>778.</sup> Ibid:  $\pm 1.3:$ 

<sup>&</sup>quot;pratyakṣatve tadapyevam vidyamānaikagocaram bhūtādigocaram naiva pratyakṣam pratibhādivat".

The illustration, pratibhā, may be taken either as a negative one (vyatireka) or a positive one (anvaya). Pratibhā is explicable as "pratiniyatam bhānam", which means that it too has a specific well-defined scope. This pratibhā or intuitive insight found in some persons, may not sometimes correspond to actual facts. Cf. in this connectien, Ślokavārtika under I. i. 4, śls. 28 and 32 as also the commentary of Pārthasārathimiśra on them.

<sup>&</sup>quot;pratyakṣatvena tasyāpi vidyamānopalambhanam satsamprayogajatvam vāpyasmatpratyakṣavad bhavet" (śl. 28)

<sup>&</sup>quot;laukikī pratibhā yadvat pratyakṣādyanapekṣiṇī na niścayāya paryāptā tathā syād yogināmapi" (śl. 32)

case of *vogic* perception, there are two possibilities: it may be due to the sense-organs (aindrivika) or may not arise out of them at all (anaindrivika). Even if it is admitted that yogic perception arises out of the senses, two alternatives are pointed out: this perception may be due to the external senses or to the internal sense-organ, viz., mind. It cannot be said that the external senses can establish a Supreme Person because their limitations are too well known. The external senses can produce knowledge only regarding those entities that are fit to be cognised by them. The tongue, for instance, cannot give rise to cognitions regarding all entities past and future, or those that fall outside its scope. It can give rise to cognition of taste alone, and that too, of a thing that is capable of being tasted, belonging to the present time and so on. The external senses, therefore, cannot establish contact with things of the past and future. Contact (sannikarsa), in general, can take place between two existent entities but not between two things of which one is existent and the other nonexistent, belonging either to the past or future. So, the senses require "contact" with their respective objects as a necessary condition, 779 if they are to produce cognition regarding those entities. Therefore, the possibility of external senses cognising entities of past and future is ruled out. Embodying the above observations in a syllogism<sup>780</sup> the Mimāmsaka says that even as a seed  $(b\bar{i}ja)$  cannot produce its sprout without soil, water and such other factors that serve as the auxiliary causes, so also, external senses cannot give rise to knowledge regarding objects of the past or future, without establishing contact (sannikarşa) with those objects. So it is clear that external senses cannot transgress the laws that govern their perceptions.

Even the internal sense-organ, viz., mind cannot achieve the desired end because its scope is limited to the cognition of pleasure, plain, etc.<sup>781</sup> It cannot be argued that the mind can directly cognise external objects, independent of the external sense-organs, for, there could then be no purpose served by sense-

organs like the eye and the ear. For, in that case, there could be no person blind or deaf in this world, 782 because the mind could itself directly function as the eye as well as the ear. But this is opposed to our practical experience. Putting the above argument in a syllogism, the Mīmāmsaka states that even as the senseorgan, eye, which requires light for cognising a thing, cannot cognise a pot if the latter is in darkness, so also, the mind, which requires the mediacy of external senses, cannot cognise the external objects without the aid of the external senses. 783

YĀMUNA'S CONTRIBUTION TO VIŚISŢĀDVAITA

Even factors like the administration of powreful drugs offered by perfected souls (siddhas), the incantations of mantras, performance of penances and achievement of yogic concentration, cannot altogether change the natural functioning of the sense-organs. They may, to some extent, bring out or enhance the inherent capacities in the senses but they cannot produce anything that is not natural to those sense-organs. The capacity of each sense-organ is well marked off. Thus the ear, for instance, even after it is given many powerful drugs, cannot transgress its realm of hearing and produce cognitions of colour or taste. It is thus clear that knowledge arising our of the sense-organs is, on the whole, incapable of cognising entities of the past and future.

Even the view that yogic perception does not arise from the senses, but from a very intensive stage of concentration  $(bh\bar{a}van\bar{a}-prakar\$a)^{786}$  offers no satisfactory solution to the above problem, says the Mīmāṁsaka. The perception that arises out of such a concentration may, however, be admitted to be very clear and distinct. But there are two difficulties here. If this knowledge does not contain anything new in addition to what has already been cognised in an earlier experience, it comes under the fold of recollection (smrti). If, however, it sets forth something over and above the actual cognition of an earlier experience, then it

<sup>779.</sup> IS p. 229: "ato 'pekṣito 'rthasannikarṣaḥ".

<sup>780.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>781.</sup> *Ibid*: p. 230.

<sup>782.</sup> Ibid. "ataśca na kaścidandho badhiro vā bhavet".

<sup>783.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>784.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>785.</sup> Ibid. p. 231: "...sāmarthyasya ca pratiniyamāt".

<sup>786.</sup> Ibid.

comes under the category of illusion (vibhrama). Since these are the only two possible alternatives that perception arising out of concentration can share, it can lay no claims to validity at all. This position cannot be improved by stating that this perception arising out of the concentration is identical with our ordinary perception, for again the defects pointed out regarding ordinary sensory perception raise their heads. If this pratyaksa born out of  $bh\bar{a}van\bar{a}$  (concentration) is called perception itself, then it cannot verily transgress the laws that govern perception in general. If it transgresses them, then it cannot be called perception at all. The upshot of the above discussion is that perception cannot point to the existence of a Supreme Being.

The Mīmāmsaka then points out that even inference (anumāna) cannot prove the existence of the Supreme Person. 789 This inference is again of two types: the 'viśesatodrsta' and the 'sāmānyatodrsta'—the former based on the concomitance observed in objects within the purview of the senses, and the latter on the concomitance of objects lying beyond the ken of senseorgans.790 The vises atodrsta type of inference which requires the cognition of invariable concomitance between a particular probans and a particular probandum, both of which are objects of direct perception, cannot operate in the case of the Supreme Being who happens to be beyond the purview of all means of knowledge. Even as persons who have never seen fire cannot recollect smoke as an invariable concomitant of fire, so also, one who has never seen the Supreme Being cannot think in terms of proving Him through the  $vi\acute{s}e st atodrsta$  type of  $anum \bar{a}na.^{791}$  The Mīmāmsaka then points out that even the sāmānyatodrstaanumāna cannot prove His existence because there is no

indicative mark that can help to infer Him. Since the  $s\bar{a}m\bar{a}nyatodrsta$  type can infer an entity in a general form, it cannot serve the purpose of establishing a praticular person as the Creator of the universe. This is what the Mīmāmsaka has in mind when he says that the  $s\bar{a}m\bar{a}nyatodrsta$  inference cannot prove the existence of the Supreme Person. <sup>792</sup>

At this stage the Naivāyika steps in to point out that the sāmānyatodrsta type of inference can itself establish the existence of a Supreme Designer-Architect for this universe. In this connection he sets forth two inferences. The first one infers a single intelligent agent for this world and the second one posits to that agent the capacity for creating and directly perceiving all entities of world. The first inference is: "This universe, like our own healthy body, is under the control of a single intelligent principle, because it is constituted of insentient matter." Here the illustration of a healthy body (aroga-svaśarīra) is intended to eliminate cases of unhealthy bodies which are seen to depend upon more than one person for their sustenance. Having thus inferred a single intelligent agent for the world, the Naiyāyika, in the second syllogism, proceeds to prove that this intelligent being also happens to be the abode of all supra-human perfections like Omniscience and Omnipotence. He says that it is possible to infer that intelligent being as possessing the power not only to create but to perceive directly all the entitites in this world, on the ground that these entities are all effects  $(k\bar{a}rya)$ .<sup>794</sup>

Explaining his position the Naiyāyika says that all the effects obtaining in the world, as for instance, a pot, pitcher or

<sup>787.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 232 : "....smṛtivibhramasrotasoranyatarāvartaparivartinah kutah prāmāṇyakūlapratilambhaḥ?"

<sup>788.</sup> *Ibid.* : "....na visvānubhavaisvaryasālini pratyakṣam pramāṇam".

<sup>789.</sup> Cf. Ibid. p. 233.

<sup>790.</sup> See f.n. 599 above, where we have discussed the *viśeṣatodṛṣṭa* as a form of Anumāna.

<sup>791.</sup> Vide AP. p. 4 for parallel statements.

<sup>792.</sup> Vide  $\bar{I}S$ . p. 234 : "na ca sarvārthanirmāņasākṣātkārapaṭīyasi liṅgaṁ sāmānyatodṛṣṭamapi kiňcana labhyate".

<sup>793.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 234 : śl. 4:
"nanyekacetanādhīnam vivādādhyāsita

<sup>&</sup>quot;nanvekacetanādhīnam vivādādhyāsitam jagat acetanenārabdhatvāt arogasvasarīravat".

<sup>794.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 235 : śl. 5 :

<sup>&</sup>quot;tathā sarvārthanirmāṇasākṣātkaraṇakauśalam kāryatvādeva jagataḥ tatkarturanumīyatām".

The inference that is intended by such a statement is: "An effect should have an agent, because, like a pot, etc., it is also an effect".

palace, are known to have been made by intelligent beings who knew their material and instrumental causes, and also knew for whom and for what purposes those entities were intended ( $samprad\bar{a}na$  and prayojana). Hills, oceans, and such other entities which we find in this universe, can also be inferred to have an intelligent being at the helm of their production, because those entitites are also effects ( $k\bar{a}rya$ ) like a pot, etc. The reason in this statement, viz.,  $k\bar{a}ryatva$  (that hills, etc., are effects), cannot be said to be vitiated by the defect called asiddhi (nonestablishment), because it can be shown that even hills etc. are products on the ground that they have parts ( $s\bar{a}vayava$ ) like other well-known effects.

The Naiyāyika urges that all entities in this universe, starting from the final product (antyāvayavin) and going up to the diad (dvyanuka), are formed by a peculiar combination of parts. Between the ultimate avayavin and the diads or binaries, the constituent parts of all entities go on gradually decreasing in number. Thus, we ultimately arrive at four different types of subtle atoms (paramānu) of the four Elements, viz., Earth, Water, Fire and Air, which form the material causes of this universe. The initial vibration (ādiparispanda) of those atoms which is responsible for the creation of matter, takes place through the conjunction of particular individual souls with their own adrs tas (unseen potencies). This conjunction (samyoga) serves as a non-inherent cause (asamavāyi-kārana) for the initial movement in the atoms.

Therefore, for the world-creation, adrstas in the form of dharma and adharma associated with the individual beings serve

as the auxiliary causes. 798 The purpose (prayojana) to be served by such a creation is, indeed manifold, involving the production of an infinite variety of entities for the enjoyment of the individual selves. The sampradāna or the beneficiaries of such a creation are the jīvas themselves. Since these individual selves are incapable of cognising dharma and adharma that inhere in their own selves, there arises no question of their cognising those of other persons. Therefore there could be no doubt that the sāmānyatodṛṣṭa inference could establish a single Designer-Arthitect for this wonderful cosmos, who is distinct from all the individual selves. 799

The fact that this Creator is an abode of unsurpassed Omniscience, Omnipotence and Lordhip can be deduced through the principle of adhikaraṇa-siddhānta, says the Naiyāyika. 800 Adhikaraṇa-siddhānta or the 'conclusion resting on implication' can be explained as the principle by which, when a certain thing is known or accepted, certain other things automatically follow by reason of their dependence upon the former. Since the fact of the Earth, etc. having a Creator cannot be proved unless the Creator is also accepted as a direct perceiver of all entitites including the atoms (which form the material cause of the universe), the admission of such a power of all-round perception in that Creator follows by the principle of adhikaraṇa-siddhānta. Therefore it is clear that the Creator of this universe is capable of directly perceiving all entities in this world.

<sup>795.</sup> p. 235 : "sarvam hi kāryamupādānopakaraņasampra-adānaprayojanasamvedicetanaracitamavagatam ghaṭamaṇikagṛhādi."

<sup>796.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 236 : "iha cāntyāvayavibhyah prabhṛti ādvyanukamakhilamavayavi kramanihīyamāna-nānāvayavavyatiṣangaviśeṣajanitamavagatamityantata upādānam caturvidhāh paramāṇavah prapañcasya."

<sup>797.</sup> Ibid. pp. 236-37 : "teṣāmādiparispandasca tadanuguṇādṛṣṭavisiṣṭatattatkṣetrajñāsamyogāsamavāyikāraṇakah..."

<sup>798.</sup> Ibid: p. 237.

<sup>799.</sup> *Ibid*: "....tadatirekī nikhilabhuvananirmāṇanipuṇo 'dhikaraṇasiddhāntasamadhigataniratiśayasahajasakalaviṣayasamvidaiś varyaśaktyatiśayaḥ puruṣadhaureyakaḥ kimiti na sāmānyatodṛṣtalingādanumīyate?"

<sup>800.</sup> Ibid. Cf. AP. p. 17.

<sup>801.</sup> Cf. Nyāyasūtra under I. i. 30 : "yatsiddhau anvayaprakaraņasiddhiḥ, so 'dhikaraṇasiddhāntaḥ". Cf. Vātsyāyana's commentary on it : "yasya arthasya siddhau anye arthāḥ anuṣajyante, na tair vinā so 'rthaḥ siddhyati, te 'rthāḥ yadadhiṣṭhānāḥ, so 'dhikaraṇasiddhāntaḥ".

This, in modern logic, gets the name "pakṣadharmatā".

Each and every being that shares in the pleasures as well as the pains attendant upon a body, along with the particular being owning the body, is to be viewed as responsible for the production and maintenance of that particular body. This has to be admitted, because those that share in the joys and sorrows of a given self, do possess unseen potencies (adrsta) within themselves which are necessary to bring out the experience of pleasure and pain through that particular body.805 Moreover, the physical body, which is well-known to be an aggregate, does not require any active principle for its sustenance, over and above the particular combination of its constituent parts. If this sustenance is explained as breathing (prānana) which requires an intelligent principle, definitely this does not apply to the earth, etc., given as the minor term (paksa) in the syllogism. Therefore, it is easy to conclude that no definition can be offered for sthiti, which applies both to paksa and sapaksa, viz., the earth, etc. and the physical body respectively. Even if the third alternative pointed out earlier, viz., that the world depends upon a single being for its activities (pravrtti), is resorted to, this cannot be maintained, says the Mīmāmsaka. The definition of pravṛtti, he points out, cannot be applied to entities such as huge rocks, trees, and cars, which can be hauled only by many strong persons. So the defect called vyabhicāra is clear in this definition. Since the fact of the world possessing an intelligent creator follows from the very fact of its being constituted of matter, the contention that the creator should also be cognisant of the material and such other causes, etc. is redundant, observes the Mīmāmsaka. So7

If, to avoid the above defect, it is held that the universe is subservient to sentient beings, without specifying any single sentient being, there would arise another defect. The Mimāmsaka maintains that the human beings, through the performance of sacrificial rites. can themselves produce different objects for their own enjoyment. So, the above statement that the universe is subservient to sentient beings (jīvas) lands the Naiyāyika in the fallacy of siddha-sādhana,808 "proving the proved". The Mīmāmsaka further points out that there is economy of thought in maintaining that the individual selves, admitted both by the Naiyāyika and the Mimāmsaka, are themselves the creators of the different entities found in this world. It is not necessary that the iīvas, in order to become the creators of certain entities, should also have a direct knowledge of the material and such other causes of those entities. As a matter of fact, these beings have the qualification required of a creator: they are able to perceive the earth etc., which form the material causes and the sacrifices, etc. which form the instrumental causes.809

<sup>802.</sup> IS. p. 238.

<sup>803.</sup> *Ibid.* "kimasya tasminnāyattam kinnu janmāthavā sthitiḥ pravṛttirvā "dyayostāvat sādhyahīnam nidarsanam"

<sup>804.</sup> Ibid.: "na khalu śariramekacetanādhinotpattisthiti".

 $<sup>805.\,</sup>Ibid.$ p. 238 f : "bhavati hi taducitādr<br/>ṣṭasālinām sarveṣāmeva teṣām taddehina iva tadutpattist<br/>hitinimittatvam".

<sup>806.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 239 : "ekacetanādhī napravṛttitve tu prabalabahujanasarabhasaprayatnapracālyairupalatarurathādibhir vyabhicāraḥ".

<sup>807.</sup>  $\mathit{Ibid}$ : "ārabdhatvādeva caitatsādhyasiddhāvadhikamidam upādānavišeṣavacanam".

<sup>808.</sup> Ibid. p. 240:

<sup>&</sup>quot;cetanādhī natāmātrasādhane siddhasādhyatā cetanairbhoktṛbhirbhogyaḥ karmabhir janyate hi naḥ".

<sup>809.</sup> Ibid:

<sup>&</sup>quot;upādānam pṛthivyādi yāgadānādi sādhanam sākṣātkartum kṣamante yat sarva eva ca cetanāḥ".

Refuting the popular view that the creation and dissolution of the world are simultaneous operations, the Mimamsaka maintains that the earth, etc., at no point of time, came into existence all of a sudden. Similarly, they are not going to dissolve at a particular point of time instantaneously. Creation and dissolution should, therefore, be interpreted as a gradual but not simultaneous accumulation and reduction of mass respectively. Since creation and dissolution cannot thus be simultaneous, there arises no question of the perception of the final atoms of the earth, etc., as a qualifying condition required of a creator. 810

It is no doubt true the  $j\bar{\imath}vas$  cannot perceive the so-called adrsia or  $ap\bar{u}rva$  that is in the form of potency arising out of an act. But all this is not necessary. It is enough if the  $j\bar{\imath}vas$  perceive the things possessing that potency, e.g., the wheel, rod and the like which are instrumental in the production of a pot. <sup>811</sup> As a matter of fact, a potter who does not at all have a direct perception of the productive capacity of the clay, wheel, etc., is able to produce a pot. Likewise, the individual souls ( $j\bar{\imath}vas$ ) can themselves become the creators of the earth and such other entities, without necessarily perceiving the material and such other causes of those entities. These  $j\bar{\imath}vas$ , through a study of the Vedic texts, understand that the performance of a particular rite leads to a particular result; they, accordingly, perform those rites and produce an infinite variety of objects for their own enjoyment. <sup>812</sup>

Having thus pointed out that the inference that the earth etc. have a creator is vitiated by the defect called *siddhasādhana*, the Mimāmsaka further observes that the reason *kāryatva* employed by the Naiyāyika suffers from the fallacy of *svarūpāsiddhi* also.<sup>813</sup>

Explaining, the Mīmāmsaka says that an agent can produce only such things as lie within the limits of his capacity, and use the material and other causes which are also capable of being known by him.  $^{814}$  But the earth etc. cannot be said to be the work of any agent. It is also not possible to say how any being could have a direct knowledge of the material, auxiliary and such other causes of those entities. Moreover, products like the pot and pitcher are very well-known to be prepared by persons that know their material and such other causes.  $^{816}$  So, the reason  $k\bar{a}ryatva$  (being a product) can only infer an agent who knows the material and such other causes of the given entities, but not an altogether different person possessed of Omniscience and such supra-human characteristics.

If this reason  $k\bar{a}ryatva$  is analysed further, it would only point to an agent having characteristics diametrically opposed to those purported to be established by the Naiyāyika. Entities like the pot etc., we know, are made by persons of limited knowledge and capacity, devoid of lordship and such other perfections. Therefore,  $k\bar{a}ryatva$  would only establish an agent with these characteristics even for effects like the earth and the hills, but not an omniscient and omnipotent Being, as desired. The fallacy is, therefore, viruddhatva.

But this refutation of the inference based on  $k\bar{a}ryatva$  as the reason should not be understood as a total refutation of the status of  $anum\bar{a}na$  as a means of knowledge, says the Mimāmsaka. When a given entity possessing an indicative mark (lingin) happens to be cognised by any  $pram\bar{a}na$  other than that on which it is based at the moment, then this other  $pram\bar{a}na$  would itself ward off all the contradictory factors that are

<sup>810.</sup> IS. p. 241 : "adyavadeva viśvambharādayah kramaprāptāgantukopacayāpacayaikadeśaśālino na yugapadeva niravaseṣavilayajananabhāginah.."

<sup>811.</sup> *Ibid*: "karmaṇaḥ śaktirūpam yad apūrvādipadāspadam mābhūt pratyakṣatā tasya śaktimaddhyakṣagocaraḥ"

Cf. AP. p. 15.

<sup>812.</sup> Vide IS: p. 242.

<sup>813.</sup> Ibid: p. 242, ff.

<sup>814.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 242, f : "api ca tadeva cetanakartrkam jagati paridrsyate, yadeva sakyakriyam sakyajñānopādānādi ca".

<sup>815.</sup> Ibid. p. 243.

<sup>816.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 243, f : "api cānīśvareṇa parimitaśaktijñānena vigrahavatā anavāptakāmena kṛtamavagataṁ ghaṭādikāryamiti tathāvidhaṁ boddhāramupasthāpayan heturabhimatapuruṣasārvajñyasarvaiśvaryādiviparyayasādhanāt viruddhaḥ syāt".

Continuing, the Mīmāmsaka points out that the Naiyāyika's inference also suffers from another fallacy called 'satpratipakṣa", that is, that there is another equally strong, inference which disproves the agency of a Supreme Lord, with regard to world-creation. He says that all the activities of intelligent beings necessarily proceed from one or other of two motives: that of personal gain (svārtha) or that of affection for

without a single exception, says the Mimāmsaka.818

others.<sup>819</sup> Since these two motives cannot be proved to characterise the Lord, it is easy to conclude that He could not have created this universe. Examining the possibility of tracing other motives in the activities of the Lord, the Mīmāmsaka points out that the Lord could not have created the world for some personal gain (svārtha), since He is said to have fully realised all His desires (avāptasamastakāma).

Even the second motive, viz., love for others, cannot be attributed to His activities, because conditions favourable to rouse love in Him were absent prior to the creation of the world. Since the universe prior to the creation was in a state of dissolution, all the living beings were in a state of undifferentiated chaotic mass, with all their bodies, senses, etc., dissolved. 820 Since the beings in such a stage cannot be said to have any misery as such, the possibility of the Lord's becoming merciful on seeing their plight also gets ruled out. Since the two motives of svārtha and kārunva are thus shown to be absent in the Lord, it has to be admitted that He could not have created the universe at all. The syllogism implied by the Mimāmsaka in reply to that of the Naiyāyika is this: "The world is not created by any intelligent being because the two motives of personal gain and mercy for others are wanting in that being". Moreover, if the Lord is said to have created the jivas out of pure mercy for them, then He should have created them all happy. But most of these beings are not happy and this leads to the conclusion that the Lord did not create this world out of mercy. If the individuals' past karmans (acts) are held responsible for their own misery, then the Lord's independence gets impaired, for He would then become a mere instrument in the hands of karman. 821

The Naiyāyika's argument that the maker of an object should know directly the material and such other causes of that object is vitiated by the defect  $anaik\bar{a}nta$ , says the Mīmāmsaka. He, on the analogy of knowledge  $(jn\bar{a}na)$ , points out that one need

<sup>817.</sup>  $\it Ibid.$  p.244: "pramāṇāntaragocare hi liṅgini liṅgabalādāpatato viparītaviseṣān tatpramāṇameva pratiruṇaddhi". Cf.  $\it AP.$  p. 17.

<sup>818.</sup> IS. p. 244: "iha punaratipatitasakalamānāntarakarmabhāve sarvanirmāṇanipuṇe siṣādhayiṣite yāvanto 'nvayavyatirekāvadhāritāvinābhāyabhājo dharmāstānapyaviśeṣeṇopasthāpayati".

<sup>819.</sup> Ibid:

<sup>&</sup>quot;svārthakāruņyabhāvena vyāptāḥ prekṣāvataḥ kriyāḥ Īśvarasyobhayābhāvāt jagatsargo na yujyate".

<sup>820.</sup> Ibid p. 245.

<sup>821.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 245 : śl. 12.

not be a perceiver of the  $up\bar{a}d\bar{a}na$ , etc., of the entities to become their creator. A man can become the agent in a cognitive experience, without even perceiving the  $up\bar{a}d\bar{a}na$  and upakarana of knowledge, viz., his own self and mind, respectively.<sup>822</sup> It is thus clear that the creatorship of a person regarding a given entity does not depend upon his perception of the  $up\bar{a}d\bar{a}na$  and such other causes of that entity.

Because of all the above defects, the reason 'kāryatva' employed by the Naiyāyika earlier, fails to prove that the universe is created by a person possessed of Omniscience and such other suprahuman characteristics. Because in conclusion, the Mīmāmsaka gives five syllogisms embodying the results of the above discussion:

- (a) Earth, hills and the like are not effects  $(k\bar{a}rya)$  because, like the element ether (gagana), they are altogether different from other well-known effects.<sup>825</sup>
- (b) Infinitesimal atoms  $(param\bar{a}nu)$  are not perceptible because, unlike other perceivable entities such as a pot, they are extremely subtle.
- (c) The time  $(k\bar{a}la)$  of cosmic dissolution was not devoid of sentient beings because, like the present period, that period was also of the form of Time  $(k\bar{a}la)$  attended by sentient beings.
- (d) Phenomena like the physical body and the universe cannot have a Supreme Lord as their creator because they, like a pot, etc., are effects.

(e) God could not have created the entities obtaining in this world because, like a released soul (*muktātman*). He does not have any motive or physical body.

In reply to these objections, the Naiyāyika says<sup>826</sup> that entities like the earth and the hills should necessarily be admitted as products (kārya) because, like the well-known products such as a pot, they too consist of parts (sāvayava). Other grounds on which the earth, etc., could be shown as effects are: (i) they, while possessing great magnitude, have vibration (mahattve sati kriyāvatvam) (ii) and visible forms (mahattve sati mūrtatvam), (iii) while being apprehended by external sense-perception, they still possess the larger and the lesser generality (bāhyapratyakṣatve sati sāmānyaviseṣavatvāt).

The Naiyāyika states that no satisfactory explanation can be offered by the Mīmāmsaka as to why the earth, hills, etc., which possess parts, could not be effects, while the pot, etc., are accepted to be so. Since there is no decisive characteristic to distinguish only certain configurations as effects, but not others, it has to be admitted that the earth and the like are also effects.<sup>827</sup>

It had earlier been pointed out by the Mīmāmsaka that an agent can produce only such things as lie within the limits of his capacity and that their material and other causes are also capable of being known by him. <sup>828</sup> In reply to this, the logician says that the capacity to do and the power to know pertaining to an agent, can after all be inferred only from the activity and knowledge exhibited by the agent through his products. <sup>829</sup> The reason 'kāryatva', mentioned in the case of the earth and the like, is itself capable of asserting that their agent is one that is capable of producing them and also knowing the necessary causal factors. Thus, we find no difference at all between well-known products like the prākāras and gopuras on one hand, and the

<sup>822.</sup> Ibid: p. 246. Cf. AP. p. 15.

<sup>823.</sup> IS: p. 246, śl. 13.

<sup>824.</sup> Ibid: p. 247.

<sup>825.</sup> This can be restated as follows: "The earth, etc., are not products because, as opposed to the instances of pot, etc., their material and such other causes cannot be perceived".

<sup>826.</sup> IS. p. 247, ff.

<sup>827.</sup> Ibid: p. 249.

<sup>828.</sup> See p. 231 above.

<sup>829.</sup> IS. p. 249 : "kintu te kriyājňānasaktî kriyājňānābhyāmeva samadhigamanīye".

physical body, earth, etc., on the other. Since there is no hard and fast rule that the activity put forth by an agent should only produce an entity that is of a particular magnitude, the objection raised against the earth etc., being products, stands refuted. Having thus established that the earth and the like are effects  $(k\bar{a}rya)$ , the Naiyāyika says that when this much is established, it follows naturally that their Creator is a person of unlimited power and knowledge. Si

As regards the fallacy of siddhasādhana pointed out by the Mīmāmsaka, viz., that the jīvas could themselves become the architects of the universe, the logician says that such an assumption is unfounded. Even as the individual self is admitted as controlling his own body and senses, so also the Supreme Being is to be accepted as controlling the entire cosmos. The adhisthana or superientendence of God with regard to the universe is of the form of the proximity (sannikarşa) of His own self possessed of a Will (sankalpa) necessary to bring about activity. With regard to atoms this proximity of the Lord takes the form of samyoga or conjunction with them. With regard to adrsta, this sannikarsa of the Lord would become samyuktasamavāva or inherence in an entity that is already having a conjunction.832 Activity or pravrtti in the atoms is to be understood as their motion from one place to another (parispanda). But the merit and demerit of the selves (dharma and adharma), being gunas, cannot have the above type of activity (praurtti).833 Their activity is to be understood in terms of their coming into contact with a particular place and time under other causal conditions necessary to produce pleasure, plain, etc. Mere dharma and adharma cannot, of their own

accord, produce any fruit, unless they are controlled by an intelligent being, even as a chisel cannot produce wooden articles so long as it is not operated by a carpenter.<sup>834</sup>

Phenomena like the production of a sprout from a seed that has fallen in a field and grown of its own accord, which cannot apparently be traced to the activity of any intelligent agent, should not lead anybody to conclude that the inference of an intelligent agent made earlier is vitiated by the fallacy of vyabhicāra, says the Naiyāyika. All instances of products which appear to have no intelligent beings responsible for their production, should be included in the minor term (paksa) itself, says the Naiyāyika. Pleasure and pain, which appear to have no intelligent controller, are still found to produce certain effects like laughter and tears, which may again be taken as an instance of the fallacy of vyabhicāra. But the above principle of 'inclusion in the minor term' averts the above defect in their case too, says the logician.

The Mīmāmsaka had earlier contended<sup>836</sup> that the *jīvas*, who are accepted as existing both by himself as well as the Naiyāyika, should be admitted as the creators of all the entities obtaining in the world. But this is a baseless contention, says the Naiyāyika. There is no justification whatsoever, in ascribing to the individual selves the power of controlling the atoms, guiding the adrṣṭa etc., for we know for certain that they do not have the power of cognising entities that are inscrutable and distant from the range of their knowledge. Assumptions, if they are made, should only be in conformity with, but not opposed to our practical experience.<sup>837</sup> But in the case of the Supreme Lord, there is no conclusive proof to the effect that He is devoid of such powers and perfections. His power to produce this wonderful

<sup>830.</sup>  $\mathit{Ibid}$ : "...na viś eşah prasiddhaprākāragopurādikāryebhyastanubhuvanādeh".

<sup>831.</sup> *Ibid* p. 249 : "siddhe ca kāryatve tadupādānādisākṣātkaraṇatadadhisṭhāna-tatpreraṇanipuṇaḥ puruṣaviśeṣaḥ siddhyatyeva".

<sup>832.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 250 : "sa ca dravyaissamyogalakṣaṇaḥ, tadguṇaistu samyuktasamavāyarūpaḥ".

<sup>833.</sup> Ibid: "pravṛttiśca paramāṇūnām parispandalakṣaṇā ; dharmādharmayostu phalodayānukūlatādṛśadeśakālādisahakārisahitatā".

<sup>834.</sup> Ibid. p. 251 : "na hi cetanena vardhakinā 'nadhişthitā vāsī..... yūpādīnyāpādayitumalam". Cf. AP. p. 13.

<sup>835.</sup> *IS*. p. 251. "bījānkurādayastu pakṣāntarbhūtā iti tair vyabhicāravacanam anabhijňatayava śrotriyāṇām". See also *ibid*. p.252.

<sup>836.</sup> See p. 229 above.

<sup>837.</sup> IS. p. 253 : "dṛṣṭānusāriṇī hi sarvatra kalpanā; na dṛṣṭavirodhinī".

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cosmos is asserted through the means of knowledge called Inference, and as such, there could be no defect called  $siddhas\bar{a}dhana$  here. When once the Lord is thus established through  $anum\bar{a}na$ , it goes without saying that He happens to be the abode of Omniscience, Omnipotence and such other perfections that are natural and unsurpassed in character. This has to be admitted because all products invariably point to the existence of their agents who possess the required competency to produce them. 838

The reason *kāryatva* was earlier shown by the Mīmāmsaka to be vitiated by the fallacy of viruddhatva, on the ground that it establishes an agent with characteristics like limited knowledge and power, lack of lordship, etc., that are diametrically opposed to those purported to be established.839 But this objection is brushed aside by the logician as highly preposterous. He says that all the characteristics like limited knowledge and power that are suggested on the strength of the reason kāryatva pertaining to the maker of the earth and such other entities, serve no purpose at all (aprayojaka) in bringing about the desired end. A given entity like pot, for instance, merely requires for its production a potter who is capable of producing it. But it is not necessary that this potter should also be devoid of the capacity to produce and the power to know all other entities. Indeed, for the production of a particular entity, lack of knowledge regarding entities other than the one in question cannot be made a necessary condition or criterion.840 Even granting that absence of knowledge regarding other things is a necessary pre-condition qualifying the producer of a given entity, there are two alternatives suggested by the phrase, "absence of knowledge". It can mean: (a) absence of knowledge regarding the whole range of objects obtaining in the world, other than the one in question

; or (b) absence of knowledge regarding only a few, but not all objects other than the particular object under consideration.841 Among these alternatives, the first one is untenable because we nowhere meet with such a phenomenon. None can say that the potter knows the pot and the pot alone, but not other things. Even the second alternative, viz., that the agent of a particular entity lacks knowledge regarding a few other entities, cannot be maintained because it is difficult to specify which these few objects are, and also because this 'absence of knowledge' regarding the few entities, goes on changing from man to man. Thus, for instance, a man might know only certain things but not other things, while another man might know things which the former does not know, and might not know what the former knows. The view that the agent of a particular thing should necessarily be devoid of knowledge regarding some object or other is also equally defective, because we cannot arrive at any regulation (vyavasthā) about it.

The Mīmāmsaka had earlier urged that the creator of the universe should also be an embodied being. He this cannot be taken as a hard and fast rule since it cannot be applied to the particular instance of an ātman entering a particular body, says the Naiyāyika. If possession of body is made a necessary condition for all activities, then, even for taking up a body the self should be admitted as requiring another body. Though the phenomenon of a single ātman possessing more than one body at one and the same time is met with in the case of a yogin, such a thing is quite unheard of and absurd in the case of an ordinary man. It may, however, be urged that even ordinary persons, after death, continue to possess subtle bodies (sūksma-śarīra) and then take up new physical bodies for rebirth. This is a wrong supposition, says the Naiyāyika. Referring the Mīmāmsaka to an

<sup>838.</sup> *Ibid*: "yathoditapramāṇabalena siddhyan sāmsiddhika-sarvārthadarsanatatpreraṇasaktisampanna eva siddhyati; kāryatvasya samarthakartṛpūrvakatvena pratibandhāt".

<sup>839.</sup> See p. 231 above.

<sup>840.</sup> IS. p. 253, f : "yattu parimitasaktijñānaisvaryādyāpādanāt dharmavisesaviparītasādhanatvamudbhāvitam , tadatisthavīyah; aprayojakatvāttesām"

<sup>841.</sup> *Ibid.* p.255: "api ca kim taditarasamastavastuvişayamajñānādi vyāpakam; uta katipayagocaramiti vivecanīyam".

<sup>842.</sup> See p. 232 above.

earlier portion of the  $\bar{A}tmasiddhi$ , 843 he says that it has been pointed out that a person, after casting off his body, enters into a fresh one, with the help of the vital airs  $(pr\bar{a}na)$  alone, but not with the help of the subtle body. These vital airs are set in motion

by the *jīva*'s karman, which enable him to reach another body.

Having thus established that an  $\bar{a}tman$  can take up a body without necessarily possessing another body, gross or subtle, the Naiyāyika proceeds to explain that even for controlling the physical body, the self does not stand in need of another  $\pm \sin \pi a$ . Thus, when a self enters a body, the body becomes the object, but not the agent, in the act of controlling, since it would be contradictory for one and the same entity to become simultaneously the subject as well as the object regarding a single activity. The point may further be stretched that, inasmuch as the self can become a controller only when it comes into contact with body, but not otherwise, the body, like the self, should also be accepted as an agent in the act of controlling.

Against such a view, the Naiyāyika says that a self cannot be called controller in the real sense, unless it is associated with the entity to be controlled, viz., the body in this particular case.<sup>845</sup> Therefore, it is proper to accept that a controlling agent, in general, should have *some* connection or other with the thing to be controlled, but not that he should necessarily be connected

with a body.<sup>846</sup> This point is illustrated on the analogy of a measuring rod and such other implements, which are found to be utilised only by those persons that have contact with them.

So, the real crux of the problem is that an intelligent being can be said to control another entity, when it has some contact with the latter. It is not necessary to bring in association with a physical body (dehasambandha) as a further requisite in this connection. The Naiyāyika says that he had already made it clear that the Supreme Lord has contact with the infinitesimal atoms and adrsta that form the material and the instrumental causes for cosmic creation.

It may be contended further that a person is able to give rise to activity in external objects like a wheel or a rod, only through the mediacy of his own physical body, but not independently of it, and that the Supreme Being also, likewise, should be accepted as possessing a body for controlling the atoms. adrsta etc. 847 Rejecting this view, the Naiyāyika says that it cannot be universally true because we know that by a mere exercise of will-power, through incantations and such other means, poison can either be removed from or introduced into the bodies of others. 848 It cannot be argued that the Lord cannot have any will (sankalpa) necessary to bring about activity in other beings, unless He Himself possesses a body, because the physical body does not form either the agent or the instrument in the act of willing. It is ony the *manas* that forms the means of *sankalpa* for the Lord. The Naiyāyika says that no doubts should be raised against the Lord's possessing manas.849 There is also no

<sup>843.</sup> *ĪS.* p. 256 : "pūrvadehapariyāgena dehāntaraprāpakakarmapreritaprānasahāya eva dchāntaram praviśatītyupapāditamātmacintāyam". This is a refutation of the view of the *Prābhākaravijaya*, op. cit : "na hi yugapaccharīradvayaparigrahassambhavati; naivam—tatrāpi sūks maśarīraparityāge sarvatra śaririna eva kartṛtvam".

<sup>844.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 257 : "....yugapadekakriyāyāmekasya karmakartṛtvavirodhāt".

<sup>845.</sup> *Ibid*: ".....astvekatastu asambaddhasyādhisthānānupapatteh preryavastusambandhinā prerakena bhavitavyamiti".

<sup>846.</sup> *Ibid*. "tenādhişţhānakriyāpekşitādhişţheyapadārthasambandhamātrātirekeṇa dehasambandho nāmāparo nādartavyaḥ".

<sup>847.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 257, f. : "atha svadehavyatirikte vastuni pravṛttviśeṣakaratvam dehadvāreṇaiva; dṛṣṭam hi daṇḍacakrādiṣu karasamyogādinā kulālādeḥ pravartayitṛtvamityucyeta".

<sup>848.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 258. "abhidhyānamātreņaiva parasarīragatagaranirasanavisāraņadarsanāt".

<sup>849.</sup> Ibid. p. 259: "kimastīśvarasya manah? bāḍham".

justification in the speculation that the admission of manas in the case of the Lord would imply the acceptance of a physical body, etc. for Him. Such a possibility is ruled out by the fact that an effect  $(k\bar{a}rya)$  invariably presupposes such an agent who is competent enough to bring about that particular effect. The point here is that if God is said to depend upon a physical body, it implies that He could not have produced all the entitites obtaining in this world such as the earth, oceans and hills. The very nature of these products makes us infer that the person that produced them is One that does not possess a physical body, because association with a body is always indicative of the agent's limited capacities. 850

As a matter of fact, mind is eternal and even when the body perishes, it can still have contact with the self with which it was previously associated.851 It may again be argued that all the products are seen to be produced generally only by persons having physical bodies and that the same fact could be inferred in the case of the Lord also. But the Naiyāyika says that only that much which is relevant for assessing inductive relation in conformity with what is perceived, could be admitted, but not all factors that are met with in experience.852 Since we cannot even imagine the wonderful creation of this vast universe consisting of the five Elements, their products and so on, it will be totally wrong and unjustified to attribute its creation to the embodied individual self, who is bound by merit and demerit, and who is also of limited knowledge and capacities. All this goes to show beyond any shadow of doubt that there exists Supreme Lord of unlimited knowledge, power and such other superhuman perfections, who, without standing in need of any physical body, can, by His mere and unfailing will, create the entire universe.

It may be recalled that the inference of a Supreme Creator for this universe with  $k\bar{a}rvatva$  as the reason was supported by the illustration of a pot, etc.853 Now that the Naiyāyika has inferred a Supreme Designer-Architect for this world who is an abode of omniscience, omnipotence and such other perfections. the opponent might object to it on the ground theat the vyāpti (invariable concomitance) between kāryatva and the creatorship of such a Supreme Person, cannot at all be observed in the case of a pot, cited as an illustration in this inference referred to above. Rejecting this as an unsound objection, the logician explains that although invariable concomitance (vyāpti) is noticed in a particular form between smoke and fire in a kitchen. we are able to infer fire from the smoke found elsewhere, in a form and magnitude that are in conformity with the different minor terms, though such a form and magnitude of fire were not previously met with in a kitchen at the time of noticing the vyāpti.854 That is why it is admitted that smoke actually establishes its relation with the fire which is necessary to produce smoke, viz., fire which is in contact with wet fuel (ārdrendhana). In this process, all the particular features with which fire was found associated at the time of understanding the invariable association like the time, place and quantity of fuel are all set aside; and this is a necessary condition for all inferences of this type, viz., the sāmānyatodrsta.

Likewise, the invariable relation between  $k\bar{a}ryatva$  and the 'creatorship of a competent person' (samarthakartrtva), understood from pot and such other instances, when applied to the particular cases of earth and the like, would necessarily point to the creatorsip of a Person competent enough to produce them even though such a Person might be quite distinct in all respects

<sup>850.</sup> Ibid. ".....kāryatvāks iptasamarthakart mattvāt dradhimnaivā pāstatvāt".

<sup>851.</sup> *Ibid.* : "manaso nityendriyatayā dehāpagame'pi sambandhābhyupagamād anaikāntikaśca".

<sup>852.</sup> Ibid.: "yāvaddhi dṛṣṭānuguṇam vyāptyupayogi, tāvadanujñāyate".

<sup>853.</sup> Ibid. pp. 235-36:

<sup>&</sup>quot;tathā sarvārthanirmāņa-sākṣātkaraṇakauśalam kāryatvādeva jagatastatkarturanumīyatām".

<sup>&</sup>quot;sarvam hi kāryamupādānopakaranasampradānaprayojana-samvedicetanaracitamavagatam ghaṭamanikagrhādi".

<sup>854.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 260 : "yādṛśo dhūmo yatrāvagataḥ tatraiva tādṛśastatsampādanasamartho dṛṣṭāntabhūmāvaparidṛṣṭo 'pi sāmānya-vyāptibalena pakṣadharmatāvaśāt siddhyatīti cet...".

from other well-known agents. Sto Here also, the reason  $k\bar{a}ryatva$  is to be understood as establishing its relation only with an intelligent agent capable of bringing the entities into existence without taking into account particular characteristics like possession of a physical body, lack of lordship and omniscience that were found to characterise an agent while apprehending invariable concomitance in the case of the pot and the like.

So as to emphasise the point that the Creator so established should also be accepted as possessing certain special characteristics like omniscience and omnipotence as an exception to the general characteristics like limited knowledge and power, the Naivāvika cites three instances where certain general laws suggested through the observation of invariable concomitance are seen to have exceptions that are necessarily admitted, on the basis of practical experience. The first instance is that of the mind, which does not have the quality of touch. It is known by repeated observation that all entities which are in conjunction with all-pervasive entities,856 or those which possess activity,857 are invariably felt by the sense of touch. The fact that mind is in conjunction with the atman is inferred through the special qualities of the self like knowledge, pleasure and pain. That the mind is capable of moving is also well-known. Thus though the conditions necessary to make the manas tectile are satisfied, it is still not admitted as possessing touch.858

The next illustration is that of the organ for touch, viz., the skin, which is admitted to be devoid of manifested touch. By repeated observation, we know that all entities which are constituted of the Element air, and which possess visible

magnitude, do not exist at a fixed place, and also that they are felt by touch. But the organ for touch, although inferred as constituted of the Elements air, 859 is still found to have a fixed abode, viz., the entire physical body, and is also found to have no manifested touch. 860

The third instance is that of the sense-organ, eye, which is devoid of both manifested colour  $(r\bar{u}pa)$  and touch (sparsa). By frequent observation, we know that all entities constituted of the Element fire (tejas), possess either manifested colour  $(r\bar{u}pa)$  or touch (sparsa) or even both. For instance, we can apprehend both colour and touch in a flame which is an effect of the Element, tejas. Mere colour, to the exclusion of touch, is noticed in the lustre of a gem, and mere touch without association of colour is felt in vessels heated by fire. The fact that the eye is made up of tejas is inferred on the ground that it serves as a means of cognising colour. But still, in the case of the eye, we are not able to meet with manifested colour or touch, either severally or collectively. 861

In all these illustrations, although senses like the mind, the organ of touch and the eye are inferred to possess the characteristics necessary to give rise to certain other features suggested by invariable concomitance, such features are still not accepted, with a view to avoid violation of a number of genuine rules<sup>862</sup> and also because those features are stultified by the means of the knowledge called *yogyānupalabdhi* or effectual non-

<sup>855.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 261: "ihāpi kāryatvam samarthakartṛpūrvakatvena ghaṭādiṣu viditasambandhaniyamam kṣityādiṣu dṛṣyamānam svasampādanasamartham adṛṣṭapūrvameva buddhimatkartāramupasthāpayati".

<sup>856.</sup> Earth is the illustration here. We know that jars, etc., made of the earth are in contact with all-pervasive ether and are also felt by touch.

<sup>857.</sup> Air is the illustration. It has motion and is also felt by touch.

<sup>858.</sup> IS: p. 261.

<sup>859.</sup> Element air is said to have two forms: (a) the extremely subtle or the causal form (paramānu) which becomes the source of other forms of air and (b) the gross form (mahāvāyu) which represents the effect stage of air and which is felt by touch.

<sup>860.</sup> IS: pp. 261-62.

<sup>861.</sup> *Ibid*: p. 262.

<sup>862.</sup> Thus, for instance, if the mind is accepted as possessing touch, it would mean that it is elemental in character. If this elemental character is denied to the mind, then again the general law that entities possessing touch should necessarily be elemental in nature, gets impaired. If, on the other hand, mind is accepted as the product of one of the five Elements, then it would not become a means of apprehending the special qualities of the *ātman* like knowledge, pleasure and pain. The possible violations of general rules in the two other instances should also be envisaged similarly.

apprehension. That is to say, those features are not apprehended while there are conditions favourable for their apprehension, which, in other words, means that those features are absent in the particular instances.

Similarly, in the case of the Creator for the universe established through inference (anumāna), all the particular features that are supposed to characterise Him, like the possession of a physical body, limited knowledge and power, should be accepted as stultified by the same means of knowledge, viz., 'yogyānupalabdhi' because those characteristics are not apprehended in this particular case, while the conditions necessary to give rise to them prevail. Here again, such characteristics are not admitted, with a view to avert the slackening of a number of stipulated conditions. Therefore, there is absolutely no distinction between the positions held by the Naiyāyika and the opponent, with regard to having certain exceptional cases in their arguments, and these are to be taken for granted.<sup>863</sup>

Having thus made a clean case for the  $s\bar{a}m\bar{a}nytodrsta$  type of inference as a means of establishing a Supreme Creator-God for this world, the Naiyāyika sets forth a number of syllogisms to prove that that Supreme God possesses special characteristics like the perception of infinitesimal atoms, adrsta of the living beings and so on :

(i) Infinitesimal atoms and the like (i.e., adrṣṭa) are seen to act under the direction of an intelligent person, because, like a ball and such other objects, they also happen to be insentient.<sup>864</sup>

(ii) All activities of external as well as internal entities, i.e.,, activities belonging to earth etc. and mind etc. respectively, presuppose the direct perception of their material and instrumental causes by an intelligent being, because like the activities observed in entities such as a ball, the former also happen to be effects.<sup>865</sup>

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- (iii) Atoms are capable of being perceived like a pot, etc., on the ground that they are also objects of knowledge.<sup>866</sup>
- (iv) The entire universe is subservient to the will of one Person because like our own body, it is also devoid of knowledge.  $^{867}$

The first of the above syllogisms infers that the Supreme Being possesses the will (sankalpa) and volition (prayatna) to set the atoms, adrsta, etc., in motion. The succeeding three inferences prove that the Lord possesses a direct knowledge of the atoms and adrsta. Having thus inferred that the insentient entities are all under the control of the Supreme, the Naiyāyika, in two more inferential statements,  $^{868}$  tries to prove that even the sentient beings are controlled by the Supreme Person:

- (v) All intelligent beings act under the supervision of a single intelligent agent (i.e., the Lord), for, they, like the sense of touch, perform their activities, standing in need of contact with their own physical bodies.
- (vi) The entire universe has a single pivotal person because like a country ruled by a sovereign, it also consists of sentient and insentient entities.

In the *Āgamaprāmānya*, where also Yāmuna discusses the proofs for God, more or less the same treatment is found.<sup>869</sup> What

<sup>863.</sup> IS. pp. 262-63.

<sup>864.</sup> *Ibid*: pp. 263-64: "vivādādhyāsitam paramāṇvādi prekṣāvatpreritam ceṣṭate, acetanatvāt; yadacetanam, tat tathā, yathā tathāvidham kandukādi".

<sup>865.</sup> *Ibid*: p. 264: "....vivādādhyāsitā bāhyābhyantarapravṛttayaḥ prakṛtyupakaraṇapratyakṣapūrvikāḥkāryatvāt tadvadeva".

<sup>866.</sup> Ibid: p. 264.

<sup>867.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>868.</sup> Ibid: p. 265.

<sup>869.</sup> AP. pp. 2-4; 12-18.

Yāmuna might have said further in the missing portion of the Isvarasiddhi might be seen in the  $Sribhasya^{870}$  of Rāmānuja where the Naiyāyika's argument is also included in the  $p\bar{u}rvapaksa$ . Rāmānuja is generally known to have based himself on Yāmuna.

## (iii) The Sàmvitsiddhi.

Samvitsiddhi, the third among the three 'siddhis' comprising the Siddhitraya, we have already pointed out, actually happens to be the first section composed by Yamuna, followed by the Atma and the Iśvara-. This section is the worst affected by gaps in the beginning, middle and in the end. As contrasted with the two other sections, this is full of metrical passages.871 In the available portion of this text, the Advaitic interpretation of some important Upanisadic texts, and the Advaitic conception of the reality of the material universe, Brahman, māyā and such other issues are found refuted to a larger extent; and some of the passages indicate that the original text of this Siddhi had also refuted the Buddhistic, Jaina, Sānkhva and the Mimāmsā views regarding certain issues. Some of the passages missing from the available text of this Siddhi are available in the quotations made by Sudarśanasūri in his commentary on the Śrt bhāsya and we are discussing them below.

The available text of the Samvitsiddhi opens with an inquiry into the reality or unreality of the material universe which we perceive. The nature of the world has posed a serious problem to all philosphers alike, Vedic as well as non-Vedic. The Advaitic concept is quite well-known in this matter. The Chāndogya passages, "sadeva somya idamagra āsīt ekameva advitīyam brahma" and, "aitadātmyam idam sarvam tat satyam sa ātmā tat-tvam-asi śvetaketo" form the mainstay for the Advaitic negation of the absolute reality of the universe.

The Advaitins explain the passage, "ekameva advitīyam brahma", <sup>874</sup> as speaking of the unreality of everything other than the Brahman. They say that the expression, 'advitīya', which is in apposition with the terms, "sad- and "brahma", denotes such an unreality. <sup>875</sup> This view is first attacked by Yāmuna.

Yāmuna says that the term, 'advitīva', can be taken either as a tatpuruşa or a bahuvrīhi compound. In any case, this term cannot be interpreted as negating the existence of the worldmanifestation, says the author. In the tatpurusa-compound, the second of the two terms entering into the compound becomes the more important of the two. 876 If the expression 'advitīva' is taken as a tatpurusa-compound, the following explanations would become feasible. 877 The negative particle 'nañ' in the word 'advitīva', possesses three senses: (a) it may indicate what is opposed to dvitiva (viruddha), (b) what is similar to it (sadrśa). or (c) what is other than the dvitīya (anya). In all these explanations, the particle, ' $na\tilde{n}$ ', does not deny the existence of any entity whatsoever. Thus, if 'nañ' is taken in the sense of 'difference' or 'similarity' in the expression 'advitiva' the entity that is referred to by the term 'dvitīya', should necessarily be admitted to exist, because difference or similarity of an entity with reference to another entity designated by the term 'dvitīva'. cannot be undersoted if the latter itself does not exist. Even if the particle, ' $na\tilde{n}$ ', is taken as conveying the sense, "being opposed", (viruddhatva) to dvitīya, it would, in other words, mean that the Brahman would either be denoted by the term 'prathama' or by 'trtīya', 'caturtha', etc., because it is these terms that are directly opposed to the term, 'dvitīva'. 878 In such a case. all entities denoted by the terms 'prathama', 'trtīya', etc., stand

<sup>870.</sup> Under Brahmasūtra: I. i. 3: "śāstrayonitvāt".

<sup>871.</sup> With the exception, however, of such expressions as "tatha", "uktam ca", "iti", etc., found in verses 25, 26, 27 and so on.

<sup>872.</sup> VI. ii. 1.

<sup>873.</sup> VI. viii. 6.

<sup>874.</sup> Chāndogya: VI. ii. 1.

<sup>875.</sup> Cf. Brahmasiddhi of Mandanamiśra (Brahmakānda): p. 6: "tathā 'ekamevādvitīyam' ityavadhāranādvitīyaśabdābhyām tasyaivārthasya punah punah abhidhānāt sarvaprakārabhedanivṛttiparatāśruteh".

<sup>876.</sup> E.g., "rājapuruşah".

<sup>877.</sup> SS. p. 268, ff.

<sup>878.</sup> Ibid. p. 269:

<sup>&</sup>quot;viruddhatve dvitīyena, trtīyam prathamam tu vā brahma prāpnoti yasmāttat dvitīyena viruddhyate".

in opposition to what is indicated by the term 'dvitīya', but are not stultified by the term, 'dvitīya'.

Another possible contention of the Advaitins is that the term 'advitīva' can be taken as an avyayībhāva compound in which case the particle 'nañ', may be taken as denying the existence of everything other than the Brahman. 879 According to this view, the term 'dvitīva' appearing in the compound 'advitīva', stands for the universe other than the Brahman. But this view cannot be correct says Yāmuna, because the term 'advitīya' which is in co-ordinate predication with the term 'brahman', can only indicate the sense of that which is opposed to, similar to, or different from the Brahman; but it cannot deny the existence of the world.880 This explanation also does not fit in, says the author. If Brahman is explained as that with reference to which there could be nothing that forms a second entity, then all the passages which define the Brahman as "satyam jñānam anantam brahma"881 would crumble into nothingness, because, strictly speaking, these passages are different from, but not identical with Him.

Another defect in this explanation of the Advaitins is that the negative particle 'nañ' constituting the compound 'advitīya', cannot become an attribute of the term, 'brahman'. It would then become a substantive itself, being in apposition with the terms, 'sat' and 'brahman'. It cannot be contended that non-existence of the world could form an attribute of the Brahman. Non-existence is an absolute non-entity and it cannot form a viśeṣaṇa of the Brahman, an Absolute Reality. Even granting that 'non-existence of the world' forms an adjective of the Brahman, the Brahman would, as before, be indicated by the terms, 'trtīya' or 'prathama'. So, it is clear that the term 'advitīya', either as a tatparuṣa or an avyayībhāva compound, cannot be proved to sublate the world. Be

Even if 'advitīya' is taken as a bahuvrīhi compound, the world other than the Brahman cannot be denied reality.883 In a bahuvrihi compound, the two words entering into it refer to an altogether different entity. The Brahman, according to this view is one that does not have a second ('dvitīva'). When analysed. this statement means that the Brahman itself becomes the second, and as such there could be no contradiction to entities denoted by the terms 'prathama', 'trtīya', etc., existing in the universe. It may be contended by the Advaitins that the term 'dvitīva' appearing in the expression 'advitīva', stands for 'difference' in general, and that the passage may be explained thus: "Since there is no entity that differs from the Brahman, the Brahman is called advitiva; and the sublation of the world of difference indicated by the term 'dvitīya' has to be necessarily accepted". This is a wrong conception, says Yāmuna. Since the words entering into a bahuvrihi compound should point to an entity other than those denoted by them, the non-existence of what is dvitiva, purported to be established by the Advaitins. should form an adjective of another entity, viz., the Brahman. But this cannot go well with the Advaitic theory because even the non-existence of a second entity (dvitīyābhāva) which is other than the Brahman cannot be real, and as such, cannot qualify the Brahman. The Genitive, which is the Sixth Case (sasthī) and which is implied in the explanation, 'The Brahman is that to which there is not a second entity', can be proper, only when there exists, in reality, another entity related to the Brahman.884 But since the Brahman which is devoid of all qualities is the only reality for the Advaitins, and also since the relation of any other entity to the Brahman is unreal, they cannot resort to the bahuvrīhi compound involving the Sixth Case. The position cannot be improved even on the analogy of statements like 'rāhośśirah', (Rāhu's head) where the Sixth Case is employed with reference to one and the same entity and has no reference to any other entity (Rāhu is nothing but the head.)

<sup>879.</sup> Ibid:

<sup>&</sup>quot;nanu nañ brahmaṇo 'nyasya sarvasyaiva niṣedhakam dvitīyagrahaṇam yasmāt sarvasyaivopalakṣaṇam"

<sup>880.</sup> Ibid. p. 270:

<sup>&</sup>quot;naivam niṣedho na hyasmāddvitiyasyāvagamyate tato 'nyat tadviruddham vā sadṛśam vātra vakti saḥ".

<sup>881.</sup> Taittirīya: II. 1.

<sup>882.</sup> SS. p. 270

<sup>883.</sup> *Ibid*: p. 271, f.

<sup>884.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 272 : "satyarthāntarasambandhe sasthi yasyeti yujyate"

The difficulty in the *Advaitin's* position is that the non-existence of entities cannot either be identified with or made the attributes of the *Brahman*, the Absoulute Reality. A non-existent entity cannot be identified with the *Brahman*, because even the *Brahman* would turn out to be non-existent. The *Brahman* cannot also be qualified by a non-existent entity because only existent entities can serve as the attributes of other existent entities.<sup>885</sup>

Having thus refuted the explanations offered by the Advaitins for the passage, "ekameva advitīyam brahma", 886 the author declares that it speaks of the non-duality of the Brahman, but does not at all contradict the existence of the universe. The fact that this world is a reality is fully supported by the means of knowledge called 'pratyakṣa' (Perception) and also by the śrutitexts, says Yāmuna.

He then offers his own explanation for the text in question. The expression, 'advitīyam brahma', declares that in all the three periods of time, past, present and future, there could be no second person that is fit to be counted as either an equal or superior to the Brahman. 887 This follows from the fact that entire universe is but a fragment of the unending glory of the Supreme Being. 888 That is why the world cannot at all be counted as a second entity with reference to the Brahman.

Clarifying his statement, Yāmuna says that when we say for instance that an emperor is  $advit\bar{\imath}ya$ , that he does not have a second, we only mean that there is no other emperor who can equal him. This statement does not preclude the existence of his wife, children, retinue and other paraphernalia. Significantly Similar is the

case with the statement that the Brahman is 'advitīya'. The entire cosmos consisting of various orders of beings such as the gods, demons, men and the creator Brahmā, is but a dop in the unending ocean of the glory of Viṣṇu, who is the very embodiment of six perfections (viz., jñāna, śakti, bala, aiśvarya, vīrya and tejas) and the Lord of all, untouched by imperfections like ignorance, merit and demerit, found in common among other beings. By this statement, the author suggests that the Highest Being glorified in the Upanisads is Viṣṇu alone and that Brahmā, Śiva and other deities are but mere fragments of His glory.

It cannot be urged that even entities that are not equal can be counted along with the Brahman. To point out the incoherence in such a contention, the author says that while counting the seven seas, for example, nobody would even count the waves, foam, bubbles and drops of water, on a par with the seas. <sup>891</sup> The reason is clear, viz., that waves, bubbles etc., are but different modes of water itself, and as such, do not deserve to be counted separately, on a par with the seas. Citing another instance, <sup>892</sup> he says that when we say that there is only a single Sun but not two suns shining over the firmament, we are not denying the existence of the rays of the Sun. To cite one more instance, when we count certain entities, the factor number (sankhya) itself is not counted as another entity, because it is not different from the entity itself. <sup>893</sup> Likewise, the universe consisting of sentient and insentient entitties cannot be counted on par with the Supreme

<sup>885.</sup> Ibid:

<sup>&</sup>quot;dvītiyavastunāstitvam na brahma na viśeṣaṇam asattvānna hyasad brahma bhavennāpi viśeṣaṇam"

<sup>886.</sup> Chāndogya: VI. ii. 1.

<sup>887.</sup> SS. p. 272, f: "dvitīyagaņanāyogyo nāsīdasti bhavişyati"

<sup>888.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 273:

<sup>&</sup>quot;samo vābhyadhiko vāsya yo dvitīyastu gaņyate yato 'sya vibhavavyūhakalāmātramidam jagat".

<sup>889.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 274 : "yathā colanṛpassamrāḍadvitīyo 'dya bhūtale iti tattulyanṛpatinivāraṇaparam vacaḥ na tu tadbhṛtyatatputrakalatrādiniṣedhakam".

<sup>890.</sup> *Ibid.*: "tathā surāsuranarabrahmabrahmāṇḍakoṭayaḥ kleśakarmavipākādyairaspṛṣṭasyākhileśituḥ jñānādiṣāḍguṇyanidheracintyavibhavasya tāḥ viṣṇorvibhūtimahimasamudradrapsa-vipruṣaḥ".

<sup>891.</sup> Ibid. pp. 274-75:

<sup>&</sup>quot;kaḥ khalvaṅgulibhaṅgena samudrān saptasaṅkhyayā gaṇayan gaṇayedūrmiphenabudbudavipruṣaḥ?"

<sup>892.</sup> Ibid. p. 275:

<sup>&</sup>quot;yathaika eva savitā na dvitīyo nabhassthale ityuktyā na hi sāvitrā niṣiddhyante 'tra raśmayaḥ".

<sup>893.</sup> Ibid:

<sup>&</sup>quot;yathā pradhānasankhyeyasankhyāyām naiva ganyate sankhyā pṛthaksatī, tatra sankhyeyānyapadārthavat"

Brahman because it is but a drop in His unbounded splendour. Quoting other śruti-texts<sup>894</sup> like "pādo 'sya viśvā bhūtāni', <sup>895</sup> "etāvānasya mahimā", <sup>896</sup> "Yatrānyanna vijānāti sa bhūmā" and a smṛti-text, "merorivānur yasyedam brahmāndamakhilam jagat," <sup>898</sup> Yāmuna emphasises that the whole universe is but a mode (itthambhāva) of the Supreme.

Pointing out that even other Upanisadic passages are in full support of the reality of the world, Yāmuna refers to the Chāndogya text : "vācārambhanam vikāro nāmadheyam mrttiketyeva satyam."899 This passage points out that the entire universe with movable and immovable entities is only a mode of the immutable Brahman who is designated by the term, 'sat', and who is the root-cause of the entire world-manifestation. This passage aims at pointing out the identity of cause and its effect, savs Yāmuna.900 An effect like a pot for instance, does not, in essence, differ from a lump of clay. It is clay alone that exists in a different state as a pot. So what we call an effect is but a mode or prakāra of the cause, even as a spark of fire is only a mode of the fire. This point had been clarified by the Chandogya through many illustrations such as those of a lump of clay  $(mrttik\bar{a})$ , iron (loha) and the seed  $(b\bar{i}ja)$ . 901 All these passages go to prove that the universe has come out of the Brahman and that it is only a mode of His. So it is proper to say that the Supreme Brahman is the soul of the universe.

The same point is implied in the Kenopanisad passage: "nāśakat dagdhumanalah", 902 etc., where Brahman is said to be the root of the powers of all the gods. The assertion of the Chāndogya that the knowledge of one leads to the knowledge of all, does not, as urged by the Advaitins, prove the falsehood of the world other than the Brahman. 903 The Chandogya, on the other hand, means that when the Brahman, the root-cause of the universe and the chief of all the entities is known, everything that depends upon Him for its own existence, as a mode of His, also becomes known. These and a host of smrti-texts make us understand that this world of sentient and insentient entities attains its stature only by reason of its having the Supreme Brahman as its inner soul. 904 This world is, therefore, an aspect of the Supreme. This characterisation of the relation of the Brahman with the universe is significant because here we meet with the express statement that the Supreme Brahman (ātman) is the inner self of the sentient and the insentient entities, which forms the basis of the clear formulation by Rāmānuja of the theory of "śarīra-śarīri" relationship.

If, however, the above view is not accepted by the Advaitins, they are only going against the established usage of experience and scripture, says Yāmuna. All usage in general proceeds from the fact of the world being a reality, but not a mere illusion. The implication of the Advaitic argument is such that even the knowledge regarding the Supreme Brahman acquired by the  $j\bar{v}vas$ , would turn out to be a mere illusion and there would be no justification for such a flat denial of the basic reality of the

<sup>894.</sup> *Ibid*: p. 274, f.

<sup>895.</sup> Taittiriya Āraņyaka: III. 12.

<sup>896.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>897.</sup> Chāndogya: VII-24.

<sup>898.</sup> To be identified.

<sup>899.</sup> Vi. i. 4. Vide SS: p. 276, f.

Cf. Vedārthasangraha: p. 10: "ekameva mṛddravyam, svaikadesena nānāvyavahārāspadatvāya, ghaṭasarāvādinānāsamsthānāvasthārūpavikārāpannanānāmadheyamapi, mṛttikāsamsthānavisesatvāt, mṛddravyameva itthamavasthitam, na vastvantaramiti".

<sup>900.</sup> SS. p. 276, ff.

<sup>&</sup>quot;vācārambhaṇamātram tu jagat sthāvarajangamam vikārajātam, kūṭastham mūlakāraṇameva sat ananyat kāraṇāt kāryam pāvakāt visphulingavat" 901. *Ibid*: p. 278.

<sup>902.</sup> This is only a restatement of the meaning of the *Kenopanişad*: III. 19ff.

<sup>903.</sup> SS. pp. 278-79:

<sup>&</sup>quot;ekapradhānavijñānāt vijñātamakhilam bhavet

iti pramīyate brāhmī vibhūtir na niṣiddhyate"

<sup>904.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 279 : "brahmātmanā "tmalābho 'yam prapancah cidacinmayah".

Cf. Vedārthasangraha: p. 8: "ekavijñānena sarvavijñānapratijñā sarvasya tadātmakatvenaiva satyatve siddhyati".

Also cf. *ibid* p. 14: "jivātmā tu brahmaņah sarīratayā prakāratvāt, brahmātmakah; evambhūtasya jīvasya sarīratayā prakārabhūtāni devamanusyādisamsthānāni vastūnīti brahmātmakāni tāni sarvāņi".

world-phenomenon. 905 To avoid this charge, the Advaitins speak of what is called the 'conventional reality' (vyāvahārika-satyatva or -satt $\bar{a}$ ) of the world. Brahman is said to have absolute existence (pāramārthika-sattā): the ether, etc. have conventional existence (vyāvahārika-sattā); and the nacre-silver has a third type of existence called 'illusory existence' (prātibhāsika-sattā). 906 Knowledge conveyed by pratyaksa are ther valid means during worldexistence, is stated by the Adoutins to be conventional reality 'uvāvahārika-satya'. This reality continues so long as a man has not attained the real knowledge of the Brahman, and that is why the world is only illusory in the absolute sense. 907 Yāmuna says that this contention of the Advaitins had already been refuted by him.908 It is a matter of regret that the portion of the text containing this refutation is not available. The conclusion thus arrived at is that the non-dual character of the Brahman (advitīyatā) spoken of in the śrutis does not at all, as alleged by the Advaitins, sublate the reality of the universe of name and form.

The author then proceeds to examine the views entertained by other schools of thought like Buddhism, Jainism, Sānkhya, Advaita and Nyāya, regarding the nature of world-existence.

The Mādhyamika Buddhists who deny the existence of everything, step in as the first adversaries to be criticised by Yāmuna regarding their view of the world-phenomenon. They say that the world cannot be said to exist (sat) because of the fact that sometimes there may also arise the cognition that it does

not exist (asat). A really existent entity does not allow of such a dual conception regarding its existence. The Sāmkhyas who are diametrically opposed to this view of the Buddhists ask how one can get the cognition that the world exists (sat), if it really does not exist (asat). Since one and the same entity cannot, at one and the same time, be said to have opposite characteristics like existence and non-existence, and also since there could be no settled opinion on this view, the Jaina philosophers tried to solve the problem by accepting the world as a complex of both existence and non-existence. The Sāmkhyas maintain that the universe is always existent  $(sad\bar{a}\ sattvam)^{910}$  on the ground that the cognition of non-existence also presupposes existence itself. They further hold that at the time of dissolution too, matter continues to exist, not of course in a manifest form, but in an unmanifest condition, like the feet of a tortoise drawn inside.

But the Advaitins adopt an altogether different attitude to this question. They say that the world is neither sat nor asat, but is quite indefinable, anirvacanīya, either as existent or non-existent, for the reason that existence and non-existence are mutually contradictory. Therefore, the universe cannot be said to have any of these two possible characteristics, sattva or asattva, either individually or collectively. The Naiyāyikas and the Siddhāntin, as also the Mīmāmsakas say that existence and non-existence can be posited with regard to one and the same entity due to certain delimiting adjuncts (Upādhis) like time and space.

<sup>905.</sup> SS. p. 279:

<sup>&</sup>quot;tannişedhe samastasya mithyātvāt lokavedayoḥ vyavahārāstu lupyeran tathā syād brahmadhīrapi".

<sup>906.</sup> Cf. Vedāntaparibhāsā: II. p. 84.

<sup>907.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 1: "brahmasākṣāt**kārān**antaram hi ghaṭādīnām bādhaḥ ... na tu samsāradaśāyām bādhaḥ". Also Cf. "dehātmapratyayo yadvat **pramā**ṇatvena kalpitaḥ", quoted there.

<sup>908.</sup> SS. p. 280 : śl. 35 :

<sup>&</sup>quot;vyāvahārikasatyatvāt mṛṣātve 'pyaviruddhatā pratyakṣāderiti matam prāgeva samadūduṣam".

<sup>909.</sup> Ibid. p. 280. ff.

<sup>910.</sup> Cf. Sāhkhyakārīkā: 9.

<sup>&</sup>quot;asadakaraṇād upādānagrahaṇāt sarvasambhavābhāvāt śaktasya śakyakaraṇāt kāraṇabhāvācca sat kāryam".

<sup>911.</sup> Cf. Tattvopadeśa; p. 23 : śls. 52-53a (Minor Works of Śainkara).

<sup>&</sup>quot;vidyate na svatah sattvam nāsatah sattvamasti vā bādhyatvāt naiva saddvaitam nāsat pratyakṣabhānatah sadasanna viruddhatvādato 'nirvācyameva tat".

<sup>912.</sup> SS. p. 282 : "tadevam vādisammardāt samsaye samupasthite nirnayah kriyate tatra mīmāmsakamatena tu".

Criticising the Jaina view that the world is both existent and non-existent in its essential form, the author says that such a view is contradicted by practical experience. A pot, for instance, at one and the same time does not give rise to the cognition that it both exists and does not exist. Experience tells us that a particular entity exists at a place under certain conditions and that the same entity does not exist when those conditions are absent. Our cognitions of existence and non-existence regarding entities are governed by different conditions of place and time. So, one cannot say that pots and other objects exist as well as do not exist. Hence, the 'syādvāda' of the Jaina philosophers, which never finds a settled conclusion, cannot be accepted as valid.

When the Jain view regarding the world-phenomenon is thus set aside, the advocate of the Sāmkhya school steps in with his theory of eternal existence of the universe (satkāryavāda). He contends that the relation of factors like place and time can function only with regard to those entities that exist in reality. Thus, we can speak of a pot which exists, as being connected with a particular place and time. A non-existent entity cannot be said to have such spatio-temporal relations. The term "relation" (sambandha) always involves two entities at least, and therefore, a non-existent entity cannot, under any condition, be said to exist. So, the contention that non-existence can be posited with reference to pots etc., under different conditions of time and place, stands refuted. Therefore, it has to be admitted that an existent entity always exists and that it does not depend upon certain conditions to disprove its existence.

The Sāmkhya philosopher argues that the world, claimed by others as having a beginning and an end, is, as a matter of fact, always existent, because that which has no beginning and no end, does, likewise, have no middle also. 914 So, the Sāmkhyas say that an existent entity should be accepted as an absolute reality; and a non-existent entity should be admitted as an

absolute nothing, like the sky-lotus. There is also no justification in the argument that the world has a beginning and an end, because an entity in the state of antecedent non-existence and an absolute non-entity (sky-lotus) do not virtually differ from each other, both being non-existent.<sup>915</sup>

At this point again, there occur gaps in the text and it is presumed that the portion containing the refutation of the views of the Sāmkhya, Advaita and other schools of thought regarding the nature of the world-phenomenon enumerated in the beginning, 916 is lost.

Yāmuna then refutes the interpretation offered by the Advaitins for the Chandogya text, "aitadatmyam idam sarvam tat satyam sa ātmā tattvamasi śvetaketo". 917 that it conveys a simple notion of identity between the Supreme Brahman and the individual self. This text, according to them, is very significant because of its clear declaration of this identity. Yāmuna calls in question the authenticity of such an explanation. He asserts that the above passage cannot be explained by the Advaitins in its primary significance simply on the ground that the terms, "tat" and "tvam", are found in co-ordinate predication (sāmānādhikaranya). The term "tvam" stands for the individual self, who is subject to many imperfections like grief and helplessness, whereas the term "tat" points to the Omniscient Supreme Brahman, who is an unending ocean of bliss and who is also of an unfailing will. To identify these two is as absurd as identifying darkness and light, says the author. 918

<sup>913.</sup> Ibid. pp. 283-84:

<sup>&</sup>quot;ato deśadibhedena sadasattvam ghatadişu vyavasthitam, nirastasyadvadasyeha na sambhavah".

<sup>914.</sup> Ibid: pp. 284-85.

<sup>915.</sup> Ibid. p.285 : "ādāvante ca yannāsti, nāsti madhye'pi tattathā".

<sup>916.</sup> See p. 256 above.

<sup>917.</sup> VI. viii. 6.

<sup>918.</sup> SS. p. 286:

<sup>&</sup>quot;kärpanyasokaduḥkhārtascetanas tvampadoditaḥ sarvajñassatyasankalpo nissīmasukhasāgaraḥ tatpadārthaḥ, tayoraikyam tejastimiravat katham?

Cf. Tattvopadeśa: śl. 26.

<sup>&</sup>quot;sāmānādhikaranyam hi padayostattvayor dvayoh sambandhah, tena vedāntaih brahmaikyam pratipādyate".

Ignorance, misery, etc. are qualities that are found in an individual self (jīva). Omniscience, bliss etc., attributed to the Supreme Brahman, are explained as definition per accidens (tatasthalakṣana)919 by the Advaitins. Yāmuna says that pairs of mutually contradictory qualities like ignorance and omniscience rule out the possibility of identifying jīva and Brahman. These qualities do not fail to point to the essential difference between their substrata. The position cannot be improved by saying that these pairs of opposites form mere indicators (upalaksana), but not the attributes (visesana) of the Brahman, and that the entity referred to by these indicators would ultimately remain one, although these indicators may themselves possess contradictory features. Yāmuna argues that the difference between the entities represented by the terms, "tat" and "tvain", should necessarily be admitted as real, by whatever name these characteristics are called, either as "vises anas" or as "upalaksanas", because they are too contradictory to admit of any such explanation. These conflicting qualities like omniscience and ignorance necessarily bring to light mutual difference, but not identity of their substantives, viz., the Brahman and the jīva. 920

To obviate this difficulty, the Advaitins say that the primary meanings of both the terms, "tat" and "tvam", are to be abandoned and that these terms should, by a recourse to 'laksanā' (secondary significance), be explained as pointing to an undifferentiated single substantive (viśesya), viz., pure unqualified Brahman. They try to justify their stand on the analogy of such recognitory statements as "so 'yam gauh", where the terms,

"sah" and "ayam", primarily referring to the bull belonging to the past and the present periods of time are, by implication (laksanā), taken as pointing to a single substantive, just the individual bull, unconnected with either the past or the present.921 Rejecting this contention Yamuna says that the analogy cited does not fit in with the argument. 922 Though the fact of belonging to two different places and periods of time is contradictory, this contradiction gets eliminated by the fact that the entity denoted by the terms, "this"  $(aya\dot{m})$  and "that" (sah). is essentially one but not manifold. Contradiction of one and the same entity being connected with two different places is removed by the element of time. But the Advaitins cannot make a similar case for their own theory because they do not bring in factors like time and place for support. 923 Yāmuna here implies that even in instances like "so 'yam gauh", there is strictly speaking, no recourse to the secondary significance. Even in instances where lakṣaṇā is applied, it is seen that only one among the two terms

<sup>919.</sup> Vide Vedāntaparibhāṣā: p. 157: "taṭasthalakṣaṇam nāma yāvallakṣyakālamanavasthitatve sati yadvyāvartakam, tadeva; ....prakṛte ca jagajjanmādikāraṇam".

<sup>920.</sup> SS. pp. 286-87:"tvamarthasthe taṭasthe vā
tadarthasthe vibhedake
guṇe tattvaṁpadaśrutyoraikārthyaṁ
dūravāritam
ajñatvasarvaveditvaduḥkhitvasukhitādike
viśeṣaṇe vā ciddhātora thavāpyupalakṣaṇe
viruddhaguṇasaṅkrānterbhedassyāt
tvaṁtadarthayoḥ".

<sup>921.</sup> Cf. Tattvopadeśa: śl. 27:

<sup>&</sup>quot;bhinnapravṛttihetutve padayorekavastuni vṛttvam yattathaivaikyam vibhaktyantakayostayoh" *Ibid.* śl. 30:

parasparaviruddham syāt tato bhavati lakṣaṇā lakṣaṇasambandhaḥ padārthapratyagātmanoḥ". Cf. Vākyavṛtti: p. 37 (Minor Works of Śankara): "tādātmyamatra vākyārthaḥ tayoreva padārthayoḥ samsargo vā visiṣṭo vā vākyārtho nātra sammataḥ akhaṇḍaikarasatvena vākyārtho viduṣām mataḥ". Ibid. p.38: śl. 48:

<sup>&</sup>quot;tattvamasyādivākyeşu lakṣaṇā bhāgalakṣaṇā so 'yamityādivākyasthapadayoriva nāparā". 922. SS. p. 287:

<sup>&</sup>quot;vācyaikadeśabhaṅgena cidekavyaktiniṣṭhatā so 'yaṁ gauritivat tattvaṁpadayorityapeśalam". 923. *Ibid*: p. 287, f:

<sup>&</sup>quot;deśakāladaśābhedādekasminnapi dharmiņi viruddhadvandvasaṅkrānteḥ so 'yaṁ gauriti yujyate svaprakāśasya ciddhātorviruddhadvandvasaṅgatau na vyavasthāpakaṁ kiñcit deśakāladaśādike".

Cf.  $V\bar{a}kyavrtti:$   $\pm 1.42:$ 

<sup>&</sup>quot;tattvamasyādivākyam ca tādātmyapratipādane laksyau tattvampadārthau dvāvupādāya pravartate".

is explained through  $laksan\bar{a}$ , but not both the terms. Yāmuna also seems to suggest here that since the Brahman is of the form of self-luminous knowledge, even ignorance  $(aj\bar{n}\bar{a}na)$  cannot be brought in to explain the contradictory characteristics obtaining in the Infinite and the finite selves. 924

The Advaitins further assert that, through ignorance  $(avidy\bar{a})$ , the Supreme Brahman becomes deluded and sees plurality in Himself and that the scriptures aim at dispelling this delusion by imparting the knowledge of the oneness of the self. But according to Yāmuna, this argument is incoherent. The Supreme Brahman, the Advaitins themselves assert, is essentially free from the world of plurality and is self-manifest. As such, there could be no possibility of ignorance ever affecting Him. Consequently, the false appearance of plurality which results from ignorance, cannot also take place. Therefore, scriptural statements like "tattvamasi", 925 which are claimed by the Advaitins to stress the oneness of the self by dispelling an illusion which really does not occur to the Brahman at all, become purposeless and consequently invalid, says the author. 926

Continuing, he points out that since the Brahman cannot be proved to be conditioned by such adjuncts as  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  and  $avidy\bar{a}$ , the classification made by some Advaitins on this basis, viz., that

the Brahman, when conditioned by  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ , gets the designation " $\bar{l}svara$ " (the Lord) with superimposed qualities like bliss and omniscience, and that the same Brahman, when conditioned by  $avidy\bar{a}$ , is called " $j\bar{\iota}va$ " with superimposed qualities like ignorance and grief, stands refuted. 927 He further states that this view of the Advaitins had already been refuted by him earlier; but this portion of the text, however, is not available. 928

Even granting that certain delimiting adjuncts act upon the Brahman, the above view cannot be maintained, says Yāmuna. "Does  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  act upon the unqualified Brahman, or upon the qualified?" he asks. On the first alternative, the different natures brought in by the display of  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ , like omniscience and ignorance, would exist in one and the same Brahman and there would thus be no distinction between the  $j\bar{v}v$  and the Supreme. Even on the second view, viz., that  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  and such other  $up\bar{a}dhis$  act upon the qualified Brahman, the above defect would still continue. Thus, since the Brahman is said to possess attributes, it is necessary for the Advaitins to specify what those attributes are. 929 It cannot be  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ , since it has just been called an  $up\bar{a}dhi$  and this argument will then be vitiated by the fallacy of

927. *Ibid*: p. 288, f.

Cf. Vākyavṛtti: śl. 44:

<sup>924.</sup> Cf. Vedārthasangraha: p. 22, ff: "tattvamiti dvayorapi padayossvārthaprahāņena nirvišeṣavastusvarūpopasthāpanaparatve mukhyārthaparityāgaśca| nanu aikyatātparyaniścayāt na lakṣaṇā doṣaḥ 'so'yam devadatta' itivat; yathā so'yamityatra sa iti śabdena deśāntarakālāntarasambandhī puruṣaḥ pratīyate; ayamiti ca sannihitadeśavartamānakālasambandhī; tayossāmānādhikarraņyenaikyam pratīyate;....naitadevam.— soy'am devadatta' ityatrāpi lakṣaṇāgandho na vidyate, virodhābhāvāt...deśadvayavirodhaśca kālabhedena parihṛtaḥ; lakṣaṇāyāmapi na dvayorapi padayor lakṣaṇāsamāśrayaṇam, ekenaiva lakṣitena virodhapariharāt; ...yathābhūtayoreva hi dvayoraikyam sāmānādhikaranyena pratīyate; tatparityāgena svarūpamātraikyam na sāmānādhikaranyasyārthaḥ".

<sup>925.</sup> Chāndogya : VI. viii. 6.

<sup>926.</sup> SS. p. 288:

<sup>&</sup>quot;nirdhūtanikhiladvandvasvaprakāśe cidātmani dvaitānarthabhramābhāvāt śāstram nirviṣayam bhavet".

<sup>&</sup>quot;māyopādhir jagadyonissarvajñatvādilakṣaṇah pārokṣyaśabalah satyādyātmakastatpadābhidhah"

Cf. also Sarvavedāntasiddhāntasārasangraha: (Minor Works of Śankara): śl. 762: "upādhivaiśiṣṭyakṛto virodho brahmātmanor ekatayādhigatyā".

<sup>928.</sup> SS. p. 288-89:

<sup>&</sup>quot;etena satyakāmatvajagatkāraņatādayaḥ mā (yopādhau) pare 'dhyastāḥ, śokamohādayaḥ punaḥ

kşudrabrahmavidāmetanmatam prāgeva dūşitam".

<sup>929.</sup> Ibid. p. 289:

<sup>&</sup>quot;citsvarūpe, višiste vā māyāvidyādyupādhayah? pūrvasmin sarvasānkaryam parajīvāvibhāgatah".

ātmāśraya. "Jīvatva" and "Īśvaratva" cannot also be the attributes of the Brahman, for the defect in this case would be anyonyāśraya. No other attribute can be pointed out other than these mentioned above. Since the essential form of the Brahman cannot be divided or delimited by any adjunct, it would mean that the Brahman, like the element ether, merely gets united with those adjuncts and as such, there would be no distinction between the natures of the jīva and the Īśvara.

Further, there is no truth in the supposition that the characteristics pertaining to the upalaksana (indicator) do not influence the entity that is actually indicated by it. Such a supposition is as absurd as saying that a person wielding a staff is not affected, even if his head is chopped off by an order of a king to the effect, "Let this wielder of the staff (dandin) be beheaded. Thus, the defect of an intermixture of opposite qualities like omniscience and ignorance in one and the same Brahman becomes unvoidable for the Advaitins even after admitting such adjuncts as  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  and  $avidy\bar{a}$ .

Emphasising the point that a single notion of identity  $(t\bar{a}d\bar{a}tmya)$  cannot be conveyed by the text "tattvamasi", <sup>932</sup> Yāmuna says that  $t\bar{a}d\bar{a}tmya$ , strictly speaking, can be attributed only to those entities that differ from one another. Even one and the same entity can be said to have difference (bheda) and non-difference (abheda). Then alone will it be possible to say that

things are connected by the relation of  $t\bar{a}d\bar{a}tmya$ . <sup>933</sup> The validity of this view cannot be doubted because the relation  $t\bar{a}d\bar{a}tmya$  cannot subsist between two entities that are either totally similar or opposed to each other. Thus, we cannot say, for instance, that a pot is a pot or that a pot is a mat. Yāmuna says that the Advaitins earlier called in question the validity of the *bhedābheda* view. <sup>934</sup> From this, we presume that the portion of this "siddhi" dealing with this topic, is lost. Even to refute the view of *bhedābheda*, one should first understand the significances of the terms, 'bheda' and 'abheda'. But having once accepted that bheda and abheda are of such and such characteristics, one cannot refute them both together, without being guilty of the fallacy of self-contradiction, says Yāmuna. <sup>935</sup>

He also points out that by refuting the *bhedābheda* character of entities through dialectical arguments, one is only going against practical experience by which we know that the perceptions of differences as well relations are real and not illusory. Thus, we see the colour *blue* and the object *lotus* and also know that the blue colour pertains to the lotus, as in the

933. SS. pp. 290-91 : "tattvampadadvayam jīvaparatādātmyagocaram tanmukhyavṛtti tādātmyam api vastudvayāśrayam".

The admission of both 'bheda' and 'abheda' in one entity is from the standpoint of the Bhāttas or Yādavaprakāśa. In the siddhānta, we have to understand bheda from the viewpoint of the modes and abheda from that of its essential form.

934. *Ibid.* p. 291: "bhedābhedavikalpastu yastvayā paricoditaḥ". Cf. *IS*. ch. I, p. 4, f, for this 'vikalpa'.

935. SS. pp. 291-92:

"abhedābhedino 'satye bandhe sati nirarthakaḥ abhedo bhedamardī tu svāśrayībhūtavastunoḥ bhedaḥ parasparānātmyam bhāvānāmevametayoḥ svarūpamabhyupetyaiva bhedābhedavikalpayoḥ (bādhanam) tena vāgbādhāvirodhena nigṛhyase".

<sup>930.</sup> *Ibid.* p. 290 : "taṭasthāvasthitā dharmāssvarūpam na spṛśanti kim?"

Cf. Śatadūṣaṇī: "väda": 38: p. 164 (Vedāntadesika Series): "na copalakṣaṇam sarvam bahiṣṭhamiti niyamah; gotvapṛthivītvādyupalakṣaṇasāsnādimattvagandhavattvāder bahiṣṭhatvābhāvāt".

<sup>931.</sup> SS. p. 290: "na hi daņḍiśiraśchedāt devadatto na hiṁsitaḥ".

<sup>932.</sup> Chāndogya: VI. viii. 6.

case of the blue colour and a pot.  $^{936}$  The relation in the former case is called ' $t\bar{a}d\bar{a}tmya$ ' and in the latter, it is  $samav\bar{a}ya$  or inherence.  $^{937}$ 

Pointing out that pressing logic too much into service would only vitiate its status as a valid means of knowledge, Yāmuna cites the instance of conjunction (samyoga) between two entities. Point experience tells us that samyoga takes place only between two different entities. Logically, however, this point may be denied through a series of arguments as to whether samyoga takes place between two different entities or between two identical entities. But all such excesses of dialectics should promptly be checked with reference to practical experience. Likewise, the relation called  $t\bar{a}d\bar{a}tmya$ , which is vouchsafed by valid perception and scriptural testimony, cannot be doubted of its genuineness by the excesses of logic, says Yāmuna.

The text, "tattvamasi",  $^{940}$  which occurs many times in the Chāndogya has this sole purport of stressing the relation of tādātmya subsisting between the finite and the Infinite selves. As we have seen already,  $^{941}$  this tādātmya should be explained as śarīra-śarīri-bhāva (body-self relation) suggested by the term "aitadātmyam".  $^{942}$ 

936. Ibid. p. 292:

"nile nīlamatir yādrgutpale nīladhīrhi sā nīlamutpalamevedamiti sākṣāccakāsti naḥ".

937. Yāmuna, in  $\overline{AS}$ ., says that "samavāya" is only a type of samyoga. Cf. p. 211: 'yathā ca samyogāntarbhāvah samavāyasya..." etc.

938. SS. p. 292, f:

"yathā viditasamyogasambandhe 'pyakṣagocare bhedābhedādidustarkavikalpādhānavibhramah".

939. Thus it can be asked: Does 'samyoga' take place between two entities differing from each other, or between entities that are identical with each other? On the first view, even the mount Himālaya could be united with the Vindhya, which, however, is absurd. On the second hypothesis, it would mean that a pot is in conjunction with its own self, which is, likewise, an incoherent statement.

940. Chāndogya: VI. viii. 6.

941. See p. 255 above.

942. Chāndogya: VI. viii. 6.

The Advaitins, taking the text "tattvamasi" as conveying a simple notion of oneness, naturally say that in moksa nothing but mere Brahman in the form of knowledge would remain. But this doctrine cannot at all appeal to real seekers after mukti, says the author. Thus, if a man were to know that the Brahman is of the form of knowledge and that he will have to lose his own self in the Brahman, moksa would lose all its charm for him and he would never strive after, or even aspire for it, says Yāmuna. This theory of moksa set forth by the Advaitins also suffers from another defect, viz., that, according to it, it cannot be specified as to who actually gets moksa, the Brahman or the individual self. It cannot be the Brahman because He is ever-released. The jīva too cannot be the recipient of moksa, for according to the Advaitic conception, he would lose his own self in the Brahman at the time of moksa.

Yāmuna then levels his criticism against the Advaitic doctrine of *Vivarta*, that consciousness which is single and self-luminous, would itself undergo transfiguration as the world of duality. According to the Advaitins, *samvit*, or knowledge, does not have any distinctions in essence. Distinctions that are generally met with in ordinary experience are only apparent, brought into existence by adjuncts in the form of different objects. When we see a particular object we only have knowledge pertaining to that object, since other objects do not present themselves to us at that time. But even then knowledge in a general and unqualified form continues to exist, running through each and every entity.<sup>946</sup>

<sup>943.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>944.</sup> SS. pp. 293-94:

<sup>&</sup>quot;brahmānandahradāntasstho muktātmā suķhamedhate phale ca phalino 'bhāvāt mokṣasyāpuruṣārthatā".

Cf.  $\overline{AS}$ : pp. 90 and 104. Also see  $\acute{S}r\bar{\imath}bh\bar{a}sya$  under I. i. i., p. 129, f.

<sup>945.</sup> SS. p. 295:

<sup>&</sup>quot;nanu samvidabhinnaikā na tasyāmasti bhedadhīḥ ghaṭādayo hi bhidyante na tu sā cit, prakāśanāt".

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So as to assert the samuit is free from all distinctions, the Advaitins refute the characteristic called 'bheda' by posing various alternatives. They say that there is no such thing as bheda and that its appearance is only illusory. 946 Thus, bheda cannot be identical with the objects,947 because it cannot independently be cognised without any reference to its countercorrelatives, viz., two objects. Bheda cannot even form an attribute of objects, 948 for, being an attribute, it should have some difference or other from the substantive and this difference should again have some other attribute and so on, ad infinitum. The Advaiting add that perception also cannot prove bheda between objects, because, being momentary, it does not last till the objects possessing bheda are cognised. That is why inference (anumāna) which depends upon pratyaksa for the cognition of vyāpti which is essential for its functioning, cannot at all prove bheda. So, the outcome of this discussion is that there is no such thing as bheda between objects and that even if cognitions concerning bheda arise, no reality can be attributed to them. 949

The Advaitins, pointing out various alternatives, say that bheda cannot be attributed to cognitions by reason of their having origination under such conditions as subject-objectrelation. Thus, if sanwit has a beginning in time, it should be able to cognise its own prāgabhāva (antecedent non-existence), either by its own self or through some other means of knowledge. It will be contradictory to say that samuit, while existing, cognises its own prāgabhāva because prāgabhāva which is nothing but the prior condition of the object, belongs to the past. If, however, samvit does not exist, its prāgabhāva cannot also be cognised, because it depends upon self-luminous saiwit for its cognition. Equally untenable is the view that the prāgabhāva of samvit is cognised by means other than samuit, for, then the self-luminous character of samuit itself gets impaired. Therefore, since samuit is uncreate, it should be admitted as eternal and free from all distinctions. The Advaitins put forth another argument to refute bheda, viz., that even for cognising bheda, samuit becomes necessary, as for the cognition of the quality colour  $(r\bar{u}pa)$ . In the light of this elucidation, they say that one cannot call in question the theory of Vivarta, simply on the assumption that there exist distinctions in samuit, which really do not exist at all.950

In reply, Yāmuna says that the above theory would only appeal to and satisfy the credulous, but not those who view things in their right perspective, through valid reasonings. He know by experience that cognitions differ from man to man and object to object, and also that they are immediate like pleasure and pain. Even as we admit that the conjunction (sanyoga) between one pair of objects (e.g., a book and the hand) is distinct from that

<sup>946.</sup> Cf. Brahmasiddhi II. p. 48: na bhedo bhāvato 'sti; anādyavidyāvilasitametaditi". Also cf. ibid: "tattvānyatvābhyāmanirvacanīyo 'nādivikalpavāsanopādānavikalpaparidarsitasarīrah ayamasmādbhinnah, ayamanayorbheda iti vyavahāram pravartayati".

<sup>947.</sup> SS. p. 296 : "na vastu vastudharmo vā na pratyak<br/>șo na laingikah".

Cf. IS. Ch. I : p. 3 : "ko 'yam' bhedo nāma, kim svarūpameva bhedah, uta dharmāh..." etc.

Cf. Brahmasiddhi: II: p. 47:

<sup>&</sup>quot;na bhedo vastuno rūpam tadabhāvaprasangatah arūpena ca bhinnatvam vastuno nāvakalpate".

Cf. also  $\mathit{Ibid}: p.\ 50:$  "na bhedo vastuno rūpam; äpeksiko hi sa pratīyate".

<sup>948.</sup> Ibid. p. 48 "nāpekṣā nāma kaścidvastudharmaḥ".

<sup>949.</sup> SS. p. 226:

<sup>&</sup>quot;ghaṭādivedyabhedo 'pi kevalam bhramalakṣaṇaḥ yadā, tadā tadāyatto dhībhedāvagrahodayaḥ kutaḥ, kutastarām tasya paramārthatvasambhayah".

<sup>950.</sup> Ibid. pp. 296-97:

<sup>&</sup>quot;kińca svayamprakāśasya svato vā parato 'pi vā prāgabhāvādisiddhissyāt, svatastāvanna yujyate svasmin sati viruddhatvād abhāvasyānavasthiteh" etc.

Cf. IS. Ch. I: p. 1: "na ca svatassiddhasya prāgabhāvādayaḥ svato 'nyato vā siddhyanti", etc.

<sup>951.</sup> SS. p. 298:

<sup>&</sup>quot;hanta brahmopadeśo'yam śraddadhāneşu śobhate vayamaśraddadhānāssmo ye yuktim prārthayāmahe".

of another (e.g., a pot and the club) and also that the desire

(icchā) regarding a particular object inherent in one person is

distinct from that inherent in another, we should accept that

cognitions pertaining to different cognisers regarding different

objects, are mutually different. The defect in the Advaitic theory

of a single eternal and all-pervasive Consciousness is that.

according to it, either all entities would simultaneously become manifest for ever, or not even a single entity would ever be

manifest. Since consciousness is accepted as pervasive like Ether,

there would be no question of objects not being presented to it,

which, however, is disproved by our experience of occasional cognitions of objects. The Advaitins are thus faced with the

difficulty of accounting for the phenomenon of occasioned cognitions. They cannot trace the phenomenon to the means that

produce cognition (like the sense-functioning), because, samuit

being eternal (nitya), it cannot be said to stand in need of non-

eternal means. Nor can the difficulty be got over by saying that

cognitions differ with regard to the objects, because samuit,

says that even the deaf and blind will have to be admitted as

hearing and seeing, because of the fact that all-pervasive Samvit

would even emit through their senses of hearing and seeing. To

Pointing out the untenability of this theory, the author

according to the Advaitins, is one but not manifold.952

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At this stage, the Advaitins bring in the theory of  $avidy\bar{a}$ . They say that it is all due to the display of  $avidy\bar{a}$  that no decision can be arrived at either in favour of bheda or abheda between objects and Samvit. This irrationality is, according to them, nothing peculiar because the very nature of  $avidy\bar{a}$  allows it. This they regard as creditable for their system. In reply Yāmuna says that the theory of  $avidy\bar{a}$  does not stand the strain of logical scrutiny. Avidyā may be explained as absence of  $vidy\bar{a}$  (knowledge). But, according to this explanation,  $avidy\bar{a}$  would become an absolute non-entity like a hare's horn and as such, it cannot be said to have any hand in the world-phenomenon. The other possible explanation is that  $avidy\bar{a}$  is an entity different from  $vidy\bar{a}$ , which would only undermine the Advaitic delcaration

point out another defect, no distinction can be drawn between a teacher and his pupil, for the all-pervasive and self-manifest Samvit would embrace all persons alike, without any distinction, says Yāmuna. 953

952. Ibid. pp. 298-99:

"pratipramātṛviṣayam parasparavilakṣaṇāḥ aparokṣam prakāśante sukhaduḥkhādivaddhiyaḥ sambandhivyangyabhedasya samyogecchādikasya naḥ na hi bhedaḥ svato nāsti nāpratyakṣaśca sammataḥ yadi sarvagatā nityā samvidekābhyupeyate tatassarvam sadā bhāyāt, na vā kiñcit kadācana tadānīm na hi vedyasya sannidhīṭarakāritā vyavasthā ghaṭate, vitter vyomavad vaibhavāśrayāt" etc.

953. Ibid. p. 299:

"tataśca badhirāndhādeśśabdādigrahaṇam bhavet guruśiṣyādibhedaśca nirnimittaḥ prasajyate". 954. Ibid. p. 300:

"idamākhyāhi bhoḥ kinnu nīlādir na prakāsate prakāsamāno nīlādissamvido vā na bhidyate ādau pratītisubhago nirvāho lokavedayoḥ yataḥ padapadārthādi na kiñcidavabhāsate dvitīye samvido 'dvaitam vyāhanyeta samīhitam yadyayam vividhākāraprapañcaḥ samvidātmakaḥ sāpi samvit tadātmeti yato nānā prasajyate".

955. Ibid. p. 301:

"na cāvidyāvilāsatvād bhedābhedānirūpaņā sā hi nyāyānalaspṛṣṭā jātuṣābharaṇāyate".

that  $avidy\bar{a}$  is indefinable  $(anirvacan\bar{i}y\bar{a})$ . The cannot be urged that the distinction of  $avidy\bar{a}$  from  $vidy\bar{a}$  is itself the result of delusion  $(bhr\bar{a}nti)$ , for then  $avidy\bar{a}$  would become identical with  $vidy\bar{a}$  itself, which is absurd. For a parameters of the control of the sum of the control

Giving out his own opinion regarding avidyā, Yāmuna says that right thinking should make it a different entity from vidyā, because the latter is unalloyed and self-manifest, whereas the former is diametrically opposed to it in nature. 958 Refuting the theory of avidyā from another standpoint, Yāmuna asks the Advaitins as to what actually is the form of vidyā (knowledge) which forms the counter-correlative of avidvā. There are only three alternatives possible. Vidyā could either be explained as Samuit itself, or the objects to be known (ineya) or the knower  $(i\tilde{n}\tilde{a}tr)^{959}$ . If the second and third alternatives are maintained, viz., that  $vidy\bar{a}$  is of the form of the knower (jñātr) and the known (jñeya), then it cannot dispel avidyā which requires only Samvit for that purpose. 960 So the Advaitins have to accept the first alternative, viz., that vidyā is of the form of Consciousness (Samvit) itself. But the difficulty here is that Samvit being evermanifest and pervasive, avidyā, which is of the form of the absence of such a Samvit cannot arise at all. Even on the view that avidyā is that which is opposed (viruddha) to vidyā, avidyā can find no place at all, since according to the *Advaitins*, the entire universe is pervaded by a single and unqualified *Samvit* thus leaving no room for  $avidy\bar{a}$ . Yāmuna, in fine, points out that the above discussion would expose the incoherency of the *Advaitic* theory of the Monism of Consciousness. <sup>961</sup>

Yāmuna then points that the Advaitins cannot offer any satisfactory explanation as to where actually avidyā rests. The iīva cannot be said to form the āśraya of avidyā, for then the question arises as to who the  $j\bar{i}va$  is. The Advaitins should reply that the *iīva* is one that forms the substrate of avidvā and this explanation is vitiated by the fallacy of anyonyāśraya, 962 for ivatva and avidyā are interdependent and the one cannot be proved without reference to the other. 963 This cannot be explained on the analogy of the seed and the sprout (bījānkura-nyāva)964 for, unlike the latter, jīva is unborn. The only other way of explanation is that Brahman Himself is the substrate of avidyā, which is highly objectionable. Brahman being Omniscient, He cannot become the āśraya. The Omniscience of the Brahman cannot itself be explained as an outcome of avidyā and thus illusory, because Vedic texts like "parāsya śaktir vividhaiva śrūyate", 965 the validity of which the Advaitins should also admit. declare in unmistakable terms the fact that the Brahman is naturally omniscient and that His omniscience is not conditioned

<sup>956.</sup> Cf. Brahmasiddhi: Brahmakānda, p. 9: "nāvidyā brahmanassvabhāvah, nārthāntaram, nātyantamasatī, nāpi satī, evameveyamavidyā māyā mithyāvabhāsa ityucyate; svabhāvaścet kasyacit, anyo 'nanyo vā paramārtha eveti nāvidyā; atyantāsattve khapuspasadṛśī na vyavahārāngam; tasmādanirvacanīyā".

<sup>957.</sup> SS. p. 302:

<sup>&</sup>quot;athārthāntarabhāvo'pi tasyäste bhräntikalpitaḥ hantaivaṁ satyavidyaiva vidyā syāt paramārthataḥ".

<sup>958.</sup> *Ibid*:

<sup>&</sup>quot;kiñca suddhājadā samvit, avidyeyam tu nedršī tat kena hetunā seyamanyaiva na nirūpyate?"

<sup>959.</sup> *Ibid*:
"api ceyamavidyā te yadabhāvādirūpiņī

<sup>&</sup>quot;api ceyamavidyā te yadabhavadirupiņi sā vidyā kinnu samvittir vedyam vā veditāthavā". 960. *Ibid*: "na hi jñānādrte 'jñānamanyataste nivartate".

Cf. Atmabodha: śl. 3:

<sup>&</sup>quot;avirodhitayā karma nāvidyām vinivartayet vidyā 'vidyām nihantyeva tejastimirasanghavat".

<sup>961.</sup> SS.: p. 303

<sup>962.</sup> *Ibid*: "kińcāsau kasya? jīvasya, ko jīvo yasya seti cet nanvevam asamādhānam anyonyāśrayaṇam bhavet na te jīvādavidyā syāt, na ca jīvastayā vinā".

<sup>963.</sup> Cf. Brahmasiddhi: Brahmakāṇḍa: p. 10: "yattu kasyāvidyeti, jīvānāmiti brūmaḥ; nanu na jīvā brahmaṇo bhidyante...satyam paramārthataḥ; kalpanayā tu bhidyante; kasya punaḥ kalpanā bhedikā? na tāvad brahmaṇaḥ; tasya vidyātmanaḥ kalpanāśūnyatvāt; nāpi jivānāṁ; kalpanāyāḥ prāk tadabhāvāt; itaretarāśrayaprasaṅgāt—kalpanādhīno hi jīvavibhāgaḥ, jīvāśrayā kalpaneti".

<sup>964.</sup> Cf. *Ibid.* p. 10 : "....anāditvādubhayoravidyājīvayor bījānkurasantānayoriva netaretarāś rayatvamaprakļptimāvahati...." etc.

<sup>965.</sup> Śvetāśvatara: VI-8.

by any factors. The Advaitins may, however, try to prove that the Omniscience of the Supreme Being is illusory through inference, on the ground that Omniscience consists of the cognition of differences (bhedas).

Yāmuna points out that the same reason involving cognition of differences would itself establish the reality of Omniscience, as in the case of the  $M\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}ms\bar{a}$  principles of exegesis, called  $\acute{s}abd\bar{a}ntara$  (usage of different terms),  $abhy\bar{a}sa$  (repetition),  $sankhy\bar{a}$  (number), guna (quality),  $prakriy\bar{a}$  (content) and  $n\bar{a}madheya$  (name). Fig. In the  $P\bar{u}rva$   $M\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}ms\bar{a}$ , the above principles are employed to distinguish one rite from another, on the basis of the distinction of one  $ap\bar{u}rva$  from another resulting from the performance of those rites. These principles, says Yāmuna, involve the cognition of difference and are also held valid and real. Likewise, since omniscience ( $sarvaj\bar{\imath}atva$ ) involves the cognition of differences, it should also be admitted as valid and real.

Another incoherence in the Advaitic argument is that if the omniscient *Brahman*, who is ever free from the bonds of transmigration Himself forms the *āśraya* of ignorance, there could be no means of dispelling such an ignorance at all. <sup>967</sup> The Advaitins cannot also say that the validity of texts which speak of omniscience is only conventional and that absolute validity is accorded only to texts which speak of the oneness of the *Brahman*, for there is no proof for such a claim. <sup>968</sup> A further

966. SS. P. 304:

"bhedāvabhāsagarbhatvādatha sarvajňatā mṛṣā tata evāmṛṣā kasmānna syācchabdantarādivat".

For a discussion on "śabdāntara" etc., see Śābarabhāṣya, Vol. I, pp. 94-103—"śabdāntara" under II. ii. i : "abhyāsa" under II. ii. 2 ; "sankhyā" under II. ii. 21 ; "guṇa" under II. ii. 23, et. seq; "prakriyā" under II. iii. 24 and "nāmadheya" under II. ii. 22.

967. SS. p. 305:

"sarvajñe nityamukte'pi yadyajñānasya sambhavaḥ tejasīva tamastasmānna nivarteta kenacit".

968. *Ibid*: p. 306:

"sarvajñatvādivacanaprāmāṇyamvyāvahārikam tāttvikam tu pramāṇatvamadvaitavacasāmiti niyāmakam na pasyāmo nirbandhāt tāvakādṛte". defect in this theory is that one and the same Brahman cannot simultaneously be the  $\bar{a}$ síraya as well as the visaya of  $avidy\bar{a}$ . The position cannot be improved by explaining that the Brahman, as the entity aham (I) becomes the  $\bar{a}$ síraya of  $avidy\bar{a}$  and that the same Brahman, in His essential form as Brahman, becomes the visaya of  $avidy\bar{a}$ , because there is no proof for such a differentiation in one and the same Brahman, says Yāmuna.

This differentiation cannot again be attributed to  $avidy\bar{a}$ , because  $avidy\bar{a}$  itself is said to depend upon the Brahman for its own existence, and thus, as in the first alternative, the defect of  $anyony\bar{a}\dot{s}raya$  makes its appearance. To avoid this fallacy, the Advaitins may say that all this is but consistent with the illusory character of  $avidy\bar{a}$ . But having claimed everything as unreal in this world, they are not entitled to say that defects can be pointed out only in real but not illusory entities. To Moreover, this explanation cannot be accepted as correct, because the criterion of the defect called 'anyonyāśraya' lies in one object being dependent upon another which actually depends upon itself for its own production or manifestation. So, the fact of an entity being an existent one (vastutva) cannot be made the criterion of this fallacy.

969. *Ibid.*: "āśrayapratiyogitve parasparvirodhinī katham vaikarasam brahma saditi pratipadyate".

970. Ibid.: p. 307:

"rüpabhedah kutastyo 'yam yadyavidyāprasādajah nanu sāpi tadāyattetyanyonyāsrayanam punah".

971. Cf. *Brahmasiddhi*, p. 10 : "na hi māyāyām kācidanupapattih, anupapadyamānārthaiva hi māyā".

972. SS. p. 307:

"avastutvādavidyāyā (nedam taddūṣanam yadi) vastuno dūṣaṇatvena tvayā kvedam nirīksitam?"

Cf. Brahmajñānāvalīmālā (Minor Works of Śankara): śl. 20: "brahma satyam jaganmithyā jīvo brahmaiva nāparaḥ" etc.

973. SS.p.307: "svasādhyasya puraskārāddo<br/>şo 'nyonyasamāśrayaḥ" etc.

Further,  $avidy\bar{a}$ , in the Advaitic terminology, is  $anirvacan\bar{i}y\bar{a}$ , indefinable either as sat or asat. They say that  $avidy\bar{a}$  is not an entity  $(na\ vastu)$ . "But if this is true, how can  $avidy\bar{a}$  form an object of thought and discussion?" asks Yāmuna. <sup>974</sup> The Advaitins do not at the same time equate the case of  $avidy\bar{a}$  with that of absolute non-entities like hare's horn and the sky-lotus. Again, when they say that  $avidy\bar{a}$  cannot also be called a non-entity  $(na\ avastu)$ , the double negative would only yield a positive sense, viz., that  $avidy\bar{a}$  is a real entity. When this sort of definition is possible, there is no truth in the Advaitic assertion that  $avidy\bar{a}$  is indefinable. <sup>975</sup>

Yāmuna then proceeds to point out defects in the theory that  $avidy\bar{a}$  has  $j\bar{\imath}va$  as its substratum. He asks whether this  $avidy\bar{a}$  is single or manifold, and also whether the  $j\bar{\imath}va$ , its substrate, is one or manifold. If  $avidy\bar{a}$  is one, then the  $brahma-j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  acquired by sage Śuka of yore would itself have put an end to it long ago, and as such, the efforts of the Advaitins for moksa would become unnecessary, says Yāmuna.

To avoid this charge, the Advaitins introduce the theory that there is only one individual self  $(eka-j\bar{\imath}va)$ , and that he sees the entire world-manifestation as in a dream. Vāmadeva, Śuka and others are mere dream-perceptions of that single  $j\bar{\imath}va$ . So, the  $pur\bar{\imath}nic$  statements which speak of the attainment of release by sages of the past, are only comparable to the statements made in a dream to the effect that a particular person had attained moksa, and thus they do not conform to reality. The Advaitins say that the theory of Śuka and others having attained moksa can be disproved by any one, by the following inference: "The distinction of the released and the bound selves is only the

outcome of  $avidy\bar{a}$  belonging to myself; because this distinction is directly experienced like the world of distinctions perceived by me in dreams."977

Refuting this Ekajiva theory, Yāmuna points out that the man who makes the above statement cannot use it against another man, who also makes a similar inference to prove that everything is illusory. There is also no proof to say that only a particular inference is valid, but not the other. These views being mutually contradictory, there could be no settled opinion regarding the matter, as in the case of the question as to who is omniscient, Kapila, the Buddha or somebody, says Yāmuna. 978 The Advaitins maintain that the texts which speak of Śuka and others as having attained moksa are invalid like the statements regarding moksa made in a dream. If this is ture, the Advaitins too are no exception to this phenomenon and their efforts for moksa would become futile, says the author. 979

Further, the Advaitins deny that by their self-knowledge, Suka and others attained moksa in the past. Since they have disproved mukti for persons of the past, they should likewise prove that in future, too, none would attain moksa which, again, would undermine the utility of their spiritual pursuits. They should find no difficulty in proving such a thing, because of the fact that they can bring in any number of analogies form dreamperceptions, points out Yāmuna. But the Advaitins might answer that the self is ever-released, and as such there is no such thing as attaining moksa in future; the only thing is that the

<sup>974.</sup> *Ibid.*: "kiñcāvidyā na ced (vastu, vyavahāryam katham bhavet?").

<sup>975.</sup> Ibid.:

<sup>&</sup>quot;nāpyavastviti co(ktau tu vastutvam siddhyati dhruvam) (nisidhyate) samastena nañā vastviti cet (matam) samastena nañā vastu prathamam yannisidhyate pratiprasūtam vyastena punastaditi vastutā".

<sup>976.</sup> Ibid. p. 308:

<sup>&</sup>quot;sā cedekā, tatassaikā śukasya brahmavidyayā pūrvameva nirasteti vyarthaste muktaye śramah".

<sup>977.</sup> Ibid. pp. 308-09:

<sup>&</sup>quot;muktāmuktādibhedo hi kalpito madavidyayā dṛśyatvān māmakasvapnadṛśyabhedaprapañcavat".

<sup>978.</sup> Ibid. p. 309, f:

<sup>&</sup>quot;tvadavidyānimittatve yo hetuste vivakṣitaḥ sa eva hetustasyāpi bhavet sarvajñasiddhivat".

<sup>979.</sup> Ibid. p. 310:

<sup>&</sup>quot;yathā ca svāpnamuktyuktisadršī tadvimuktigīḥ tathaiva bhavato 'pīti vyartho mokṣāya te śramaḥ".

<sup>980.</sup> *Ibid*.: "yathā teṣāmabhūtaiva purastādātmavidyayā muktir bhūtocyate tadvat parastādātmavidyayā abhāvinyeva sā mithyā bhāvinītyapadisyatām santi ca svapnadṛṣṭāni dṛṣṭāntavacanāni te".

<sup>981.</sup> Cf. IS. ch. I. p. 29 : "na hi mokșo 'prāptaḥ prāpyate, anityatvaprasaṅgāt".

self forgets, under the influence of  $avidy\bar{a}$ , the fact that it is everfree, like a man who searches for a golden ornament, say, a bracelet, forgetting that he has it on his own hand. So, the attempts to attain  $mok\bar{s}a$  through  $brahmavidy\bar{a}$ , aim at bringing to light or manifesting (vyakti or abhivyakti) the released nature of the self, by dispelling  $avidy\bar{a}$  which obscures it, and as such, they are fully justified, say the Advaitins.

But Yāmuna demands an explanation for the term 'abhivyakti'. By 'abhivyakti' should be meant either the essential form (svarūpa) of self-manifest Consciousness, or knowledge assuming a mental state in the form, 'I am Brahman' (aham brahmāsmi). The first view cannot be maintained because Consciousness being eternal and ever-present, it cannot be said to come into existence only in the dawn of brahmajñāna. <sup>984</sup> The second alternative is equally untenable, for the Advaitins say that the direct realisation in the form, "I am Brahman", constitutes brahmajñāna itself. Therefore, they cannot describe this realisation as the fruit of brahmajñāna. <sup>985</sup> Another defect in this theory is that brahmajñāna is said to arise from such texts as "tattvamasi". <sup>986</sup> But since jñāna is said to have a beginning, it

982. SS. p. 311 : "avidyāpratibaddhatvādatha sā nityasatyapi asatīveti tadvyaktir vidyāphalamupeyate hastasthameva hemādi vismṛtammṛgyate yathā yathā tadeva hastastham avagamyopaśāmyati".

Cf. Atmabodha: p. 16: śl. 44:

"ātmā tu satatam prāpato 'pyaprāptavadavidyayā tannāse prāptavadbhāti svakanthābharanam yathā".

Cf. also IS. ch.  $I:p.\ 29:$  "sukhamapyaprāptamiveti tatprāptih pumarthah, hastagatavismṛtasuvarṇaprāptivat".

983. SS. p. 911:

"tathaiva nityasiddhātmasvarūpānavabodhataḥ samsāriṇastathābhāvo vyajyate brahmavidyayā".

984. Ibid.: "yadi syarūpasamvit sā, nityaiveti na tat phalam".

985. Ibid.: pp. 311-312:

"atha brahmāhamasmīti samvittir vyaktirişyate nanu te brahmavidyā sā saiva tasyāḥ phalam katham".

986. Chāndogya: VI. viii. 6.

cannot be eternal, as a result of which even the released soul might get frightened that transmigration would again set in. 987 Yāmuna says that, strictly speaking, avidyā cannot form an impediment (pratibandha) in the way of the manifestation (abhivyakti) of mukti, which the Avaitins claim as ever-present. An impediment is that which prevents the production of an effect, even when the causal conditions necessary to give rise to that effect are fully present. 988 Since moksa is admitted by the Advaitins as eternal, it cannot be produced at all and as such, avidyā, described as a pratibandha, cannot at all stand in its way. Similar is the case with the cognition, 'aham brahmāsmi', 989 because this cognition, which forms the totality of causes necessary to produce Brahmānubhava, does not occur to a man in samsāra and as such it cannot be said to be obscured or interrupted by avidyā.

Having thus pointed out that the  $Ekaj\bar{i}va$ -theory cannot account for the spiritual activity of man, Yāmuna says that it cannot also stand serious scrutiny. Since the Advaitins say that  $j\bar{i}vatva$  is only the result of the action of  $avidy\bar{a}$  on the Brahman, they are not justified in saying that there exists a single Self. 990 This theory also contradicts our practical experience by which

987. SS. p. 312:

"kiñca sā tattvamasyādivākyajanyā bhavanmate utpattimatyanityeti muktasyāpi bhayam bhavet".

988. Ibid:

"api ca vyavahārajñāssati pus kalakāraņe kāryam na jāyate yena, tamāhuh pratibandhakam".

989. Ibid. p. 314:

"na muktir nityasiddhatvāt, na brahmāsmīti dhīrapi na hi brahmāhamasmīti samvit puşkalakāraņam samsāriņastadāstīti katham sā pratibadhyate".

This  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ , "brahmāsmi", is called "sākṣātkāra" (direct realisation).

Cf. Pañcadaśi: VI-16:

"asti brahmeti cedveda parokṣajñānameva tat aham brahmeti cedveda sākṣātkārassa ucyate".

990. SS. p. 314 : "prātibhāsikamekatvam pratibhāsaparāhatam".

we know that there are many *jīvas* whose activities are real and contrasted to those experienced in a dream. Thus, the plurality of individual selves vouchsafed by our practical experience cannot be disproved by the Advaitins through logic. 991

Yāmuna further says that one not only sees that there are many  $j\bar{\imath}vas$  in this world, but can also infer to the same effect, viz., that the physical bodies seen in this world are all ensouled like one's own body, on the ground that they also possess different activities. 992 The souls thus inferred can again be shown to differ from one's own self on the ground that volitions responsible for the movements in those bodies must necessarily inhere in different individual selves. Even when we infer fire on a hill-top, we cannot deny the fact that the hill-fire is different from the fire observed in a kitchen, etc., the latter being the positive illustration (sapaksa) in the process. Likewise, nobody fails to notice the difference between his own self and the other selves, which are inferred in the manner indicated above.

If the inferability of other selves is not admitted, the Advaitins are again going against the sanctions of secular experience and scriptural testimony, says the author. 993

It might be urged that plurality of souls, like that of objects, is again illusory on the ground that it is the result of one and the same *Samwit* getting conditioned by different adjuncts. Yāmuna, repudiating this argument, points out that if *upādhis* are taken as the standards of arriving at conclusions, then, in one and same physical body, there being diffferent organs

like hands and feet which serve as upādhis, we will have to admit the upsurgence of a number of consciousnesses. This cannot be accepted, for then the experiences of pleasure or pain located in different organs, cannot be comprehended and recollected by a single self possessing that body. A further flaw in the Advaitic argument is that since Consciousness is single, pervading all bodies, pleasures and pains pertaining to those bodies should also be recollected by that Consciousness itself, which, however, is disproved by common experience.994 The Advaitins cannot in defence of their position, pose the problem that the self should recollect all experiences of the previous births also. The self might not have recollections from the previous births on account of such reasons as the agony of death, the tortures undergone in hell, the throes through which the self is born in this world and the lapse of time. 995 Moreover, when various pleasures and pains arise simultaneously, one has to account for the non-recollection of pleasure, etc., and this can be done only by explaining that the substrata of pleasure and pain, viz., the selves, differ from one another.996

Yāmuna then refers to another theory which opines that there are many individual selves, and that the world-appearance has no permanent illusion for all people. "Each person creates his own world of illusion for himself, and there is no objective datum, which forms the common ground for the illusory perception of all men." Each man being a separate entity by himself, he does not know anything about the other selves. But

<sup>991.</sup> Ibid. pp. 314-15:

<sup>&</sup>quot;yato naḥ pratibhāsante samsarantaḥsahasraśaḥ āsamsārasamucchedam vyavahārāśca tatkṛtāḥ abādhitāḥ pratīyante svapnavṛttavilakṣaṇāḥ tena yauktikamekatvamapi yuktiparāhatam".

<sup>.992.</sup> Ibid. p. 315:

<sup>&</sup>quot;pravṛttibhedānumitā viruddhamitivṛttayaḥ tattatsvātmavadanye 'pi, dehino 'śakyanihnavāḥ".

<sup>993.</sup> Ibid. p. 316:

<sup>&</sup>quot;na cecceșțāviśeș na paro boddhānumiyate vyavahāro 'valupyeta sarvo laukikavaidikah".

<sup>994.</sup> *Ibid*. pp. 316-17:

<sup>&</sup>quot;na caupādhikabhedena meyamātrvibhāgadhih svasarīrepi tatprāpteh, sirah pānyādibhedatah (yathā) tatra sirah pānipādādau vedanodaye anusandhānamekatve, tathā sarvatra te bhavet".

<sup>995.</sup> Ibid. p. 317:

<sup>&</sup>quot;prāyaṇānnarakkleśāt prasūtivyasanādapi cirātivṛttāḥ prāgjanmabhogā na smṛtigocarāḥ".

<sup>996.</sup> *Ibid*: "yugapajjäyamāneşu (sukhduḥkhādiṣu sphuṭāḥ) aśrayāsankarastatra kathamaikyārthavibhramaḥ"

<sup>997.</sup> Vide History of Indian Philosophy by S.N. Dasgupta, Vol. I. p. 477.

this theory is also defective, according to Yāmuna. Here, each individual self is said to be completely ignorant of the remaining selves, seeing his own dream-objects all the while. Therefore, such selves cannot be taken as constituting and running their course in this world, wherein we see by common experience that all  $j\bar{i}vas$  are, in some capacity or other, connected with one another. Yāmuna has thus refuted the theory of the Advaitins that the distinctions of the knower and the known  $(j\bar{n}\bar{a}tr$  and  $j\bar{n}eya)$  are only due to the impact of  $avidy\bar{a}$  on Samvit, which is unitary.

Yāmuna then calls in question the Advaitic assertion that Samvit is advitiva, that is to say, it is mere unqualified knowledge. This is quite untenable because they declare that Samvit is self-manifest, unitary, pervasive and so on, which, in other words, is only admitting that it possesses qualities such as self-manifestation, unitariness, pervasiveness, etc. 999 These characteristics cannot be identified with the very form of Samuit itself so as to avoid the above difficulty. We find that philosophers entertain divergent views regarding the characteristics of Samvit, even though all of them fundamentally agree that Samuit exists. 1000 This divergence of opinion indicates that Samuit and its characteristics like eternity and pervasiveness are mutually different but not identical with each other. The Advaitins cannot call these attributes illusory, for they are mentioned in the Upanişads, the validity of which has to be admitted even by the Advaitins. 1001 But they may explain these qualities as one with the essential form of the Brahman Himself.

998. SS. p. 318:

"paravārtānabhijñāste svasvasvapnaikadarśinaḥ kathaṁ pravartayeyustāṁ saṅgādyekanibandhanām".

999. Ibid. p. 319:

"kiñca svayamprakāśatvavibhutvaikatvanityatāḥ tvadabhyupetā bādheran samvidaste 'dvitīyatām"

1000. Ibid:

"samvideva na te dharmāssiddhāyāmapi samvidi vivādadarsanātteşu, tadrūpāņām ca bhedataḥ".

1001. Ibid:

"na ca te bhrāntisiddhāste yenādvaitāvirodhinaḥ tattvāvedakavedāntavākyasiddhā hi te guṇāḥ".

Here, there are three alternatives possible, says Yāmuna. Bliss, truth and the like could either be the pure form of the Brahman, or be His attributes, or could themselves be designated the Brahman, either individually or collectively. 1002 On the first view, viz., that bliss, truth, etc., are identical with pure Brahman. terms like Existence (satya), Knowledge (jñāna) and Infinity (ananta) occurring in different Upanisads, would become redundant. since the entity denoted by them remains the same, the pure unqualified Brahman. This results in attributing the defect of redundance to terms, found in Vedic texts as well as those employed in ordinary parlance. 1003 As a matter of fact, usage of different terms like Existence, Knowledge and Infinity with regard to the Brahman Himself, suggests the mutual difference of those attributes qualifying the Brahman. Another strong reason for holding these attributes to be distinct from the form of the Brahman is that, although philosophers (whose authority is the Veda) are agreed on the fact of the Brahman being the Prime Cause of the entire world-manifestation, yet they differ among themselves regarding the attributes of the Brahman. This difference of opinion would ultimately point out the difference between the form of the Brahman and His characteristics such as Existence and Knowledge. 1004

The second alternative, viz., that Existence, Bliss, etc. only belong to the *Brahman* as His characteristics, cannot be maintained by the *Advaitins*, for, then, the declaration that *Brahman* is *advitīya*, (unqualified), gets sublated. 1005

The third hypothesis, viz., that each and every attribute like Existence and Knowledge becomes identical with *Brahman*, if accepted, would only result in the plurality of *Brahman*, which again undermines His unitary nature. But the Advaita philosophers take all these attributes like *satya* and *ananta* to represent

<sup>1002.</sup> Ibid. p. 320:

<sup>&</sup>quot;brahmeti yāvannirdişţam tanmātram kim sukhādayaḥ athavā tasya te, yadvā, ta eva brahmasamjñinah".

<sup>1003.</sup> Ibid: "ādye tattatpadāmnānavaiyarthyam vedalokayoh"

<sup>1004.</sup> Ibid: "pūrvoktanītyā bhedaśca...." etc.

<sup>1005.</sup> Ibid.: "dvitiye saiva, taireva brahmanassadvitiyatā".

Brahman collectively, even as a collection of trees is taken to represent a forest. But this explanation does not improve the position, says Yāmuna. Thus, just as a forest cannot be something totally different from the trees constituting it, so also Brahman cannot be said to be totally distinct from His constituent characteristics like Existence and Knowledge; and there is thus the defect of redundance of terms, as in the previous agreement. 1006

If, on the other hand, Brahman is said to be different from these attributes, this would again refute the theory of unqualified Brahman. But the Advaitins take the text, "satyam jñānamanantam brahma" 1007 as conveying a general notion of identity, like the statement, "prakṛṣṭaprakāśasavitā". 1008 Yāmuna points out that the terms, "prakaṣṣa" (excellence in comparison with other entities) and "prakāśa" (luminosity), do not convey any undifferentiated sense of identity. No statement in coordinate predication (sāmānādhikaranya) can be given as an instance of the undifferentiated notion of identity, he adds. The terms, "prakāśa" and "prakarṣa", clearly bring out the particular traits of the shining objects, says Yāmuna in fine. 1009

The Advaitins now adopt a different method to achieve their end; they explain terms like ' $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ ' and 'ananta', not as conveying any positive attribute of the Brahman as such. These terms, on the other hand, convey a negative sense. Thus, for instance by ' $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ ' is meant the absence or non-existence

1006. Ibid:

"tṛtīye brahma bhidyeta tanmātratvāt pade pade tatsamūho 'thavā brahma tarubṛndavanādivat".

1007. Taittirīya Upanişad: II. i. 1.

1008. Brahmasiddhi : I. p. 5 : "visistasya āhlādātmanah prakāsasya cāndramasyeva sabdadvayena pratipādanānna dosah; yathā ca prakṛṣṭaḥ prakāsaḥ savitā iti".

SS. p. 320-21 : "prakarsaśca prakāśaśca bhinnāvevārkavartinau".

1009.  $\mathit{Ibid}$ . SS. p.321: "tena na kvāpi vākyārtho 'vibhāgo 'sti nidaršanam".

(abhāva or apoha) of 'ajñāna' (called 'jādya' by Yāmuna);  $^{1010}$  by 'ānanda' is meant the absence of misery (duhkha) and so on. This negation, according to the Advaitins, is merely of the form of the substratum (adhikarana), viz., the Brahman.

Here again, a three-fold alternative is posed by Yāmuna. 1011 The 'apoha' or non-existence might be really existent or non-existent, or be quite indefinable as either existent or non-existent. If non-existences or apohas do really exist, then Brahman cannot be described as 'advitīya'. If, on the other hand, these apohas do not really exist it would only imply the existence of qualities like ajñāna and duhkha in the Brahman Himself, which, however, is inadmissible. The third alternative, viz., that apoha or abhāva is something indefinable either as sat or asat, has already been refuted by him, says Yāmuna. Moreover, if the apohas are of the form of the Brahman Himself, and also indefinable as either sat or asat, then Brahman too would become similar to inanimate objects such as a pot. 1012

Further, the Advaitins should admit that terms like 'jñāna' and 'ānanda' convey senses that are opposed to those conveyed by terms like 'jādya' and 'duhkha' respectively, which are purported to be negated. If this distinction is not admitted between 'jñāna' and 'ajñāna' and between 'ānanda' and 'duhkha', the term 'negation' carries no sense at all. So, terms like 'jñāna' and 'ānanda' would ultimately convey a specific sense of opposedness to 'ajñāna' and 'duhkha' and Brahman would again become qualified. 1013

1010. Ibid.

"jāḍyaduḥkhādyapohena yadyekatraiva vartitā jñānānadādiśabdānāṁ na satassadvitīyatā".

1011. Ibid: "apohāh kim na santyeva, santo vā, nobhaye 'pi vā?"

1012. *Ibid*: "sattve sat sadvitīyam syāt jaḍādyātmakatā pare sadasadvyatirekoktiḥpūrvameva parākṛtā tathātve ca ghaṭādibhyo brahmāpi na viśiṣyate".

1013. Ibid. p. 322:

kiñcāpohyajadatvādiviruddhārthāsamarpaņe naiva tattadapohyeta tadekārthaih padairiva".

The Advaitins themsleves admit that even for negation, a particular from of the entity to be negated has to be accepted. Cf. *Brahmasiddhi*: II. śl. 2: p. 44: "labdharūpe kvacit kińcit tādrgeva nisidhyate".

Moreover, abhāva (or apoha) does not convey the absence of knowledge regarding an entity. Rather, it is of the form of mere substratum (adhikarana), devoid of its counter-correlative, viz., the object which is not cognised while the conditions necessary for its cognition are present. This is from the viewpoint of those who hold abhāva as a form of knowledge. Abhāva can even be explained as a positive entity obtained in a substratum, when its pratiyogin (counter-correlative) is not cognised while it is competent enough to be cognised. Therefore, 'abhāva', in other words, is a positive characteristic found in a substrate. Thus, for example, when we say, 'There is no pot on the ground', we are admitting the existence of the substratum, ground, which, however, is devoid of the object, pot. So, the Advaitic claim for an undifferentiated Consciousness, Brahman, becomes untenable. 1014

Yāmuna then criticises the Advaitic contention that the universe is sadasadanirvacanīya, indefinable either as existent or non-existent. There is no proof for such a view, says Yāmuna. Thus, pratyakṣa (Perception) does not prove that the objects in this world are anirvacanīya. We, by common experience, know that Perception and other means of knowledge produce correct cognitions in us regarding particular entities, and the cognition born out of one means of knowledge is distinct from the cognition produced by another means. Thus, when we see a blue object, we have the cognition regarding blueness and when we see a white crystal, we have cognition regarding whiteness, which cognitions are mutually distinct from each other. 1015

Similar is our experience with regard to the cognition of tastes. The taste of sweetness in milk is known to be distinct from the bitterness of margosa and so on and so forth. So, the distinction of one cognition from another is a matter of common experience, and the *Vedic vyavahāra* is also based fundamentally

on such a distinction of cognitions. So the Advaitins are not justified in saying that pratyaksa or Perception proves that the world-phenomenon is anirvacaniya. They have to admit the existence of a variety of entities in this world, possessing specific and distinct forms. 1016 The Advaitins might, however, agree that the entities in this world appear to be existent, but go on to argue that there is no proof or basis for such an appearance. 1017 Yamuna suggests that they, on the strength of the practical observation of different entities in this world, should infer the root-cause of such a phenomenon, which would determine the reality of our perceptions. 1018 Moreover, since our cognitions regarding different entities arise only when means like pratyaksa and anumāna function, but not in their absence, it is reasonable to suppose that the knowledge these means produce, is in general, valid. 1019 Direct perception which arises from non-defective sense-organs would only cognise bheda or difference of entities, but never their identity.

It might be urged that Perception cannot at one and the same time, cognise both the substrate and the difference that subsists in it, for two reasons. For a cognition of the substrate, no cognition of the counter-correlative (pratiyogin) is necessary, whereas for the cognition of bheda, the cognition of its counter-correlative becomes essential. Perception cannot even be said to cognise the substrate first and the difference (bheda) next, by reason of its momentary character. Nor is it possible to identify the substratum and difference (bheda) with their respective cognitions. The Advaitins thus conclude that pratyahsa merely cognises the form of objects presented to our sense-organs and that the cognition of difference (bheda) does not conform to reality.

<sup>1014.</sup> SS. p. 322:

<sup>&</sup>quot;pratiyogini drsye tu yā bhāvāntaramātradhīḥ saivābhāva itīhāpi sabdhiste sadvitīyatā".

<sup>1015.</sup> Ibid. p. 323:

<sup>&</sup>quot;bhūtabhautikabhedānām sadasadvyatirekitā kuto 'vasīyate? kinnu pratyakṣāder utāgamāt", etc.

<sup>1016.</sup> Ibid: p. 324.

<sup>1017.</sup> Ibid: "satyam pratītirastyasyā mūlam nāstīti cet..."

Cf. IS. ch. I. p. 2 : "satyam, prasiddhirasti....kintu nāsyā mūlam pašyāmah".

<sup>1018.</sup> SS. p. 324 : "sā cedasti tasyā (tayā) mūlam kalpyatām kāryabhūtayā".

<sup>1019.</sup> Ibid: "kļptam cendriyalingādi tadbhāvānuvidhānatah".

But this view of the Advaitins is based upon their lack of correct knowledge regarding the significances of the vijātīva and sajātīya differences that an object possesses, that is, distinctions from dissimilar and similar things. The moment we perceive an object, we percive it as different from other entities of the same class and also from those of a separate class. This is similar to the non-apprehension of a pot on the ground, for instance, which is understood by mere observation of the ground, while conditions favourable for the perception of the pot are fully present. One and the same entity, with reference to different correlatives, gives rise to different verbal usages (vvavahāra). For example, an object six inches long is called shorter, only when it is compared with an object longer than itself and the same object is also termed longer, with reference to a shorter object. 1020 So, bheda, which constitutes the very form of objects, is cognised the moment an object is seen. Verbal reference to bheda, however, arises only when the counter-correlatives are involved. That is why the world of multiplicity cognised by direct perception possesses many modes and forms that are peculiar to each object and as such, none can denv its reality. 1021

1020. SS. pp. 324-25:

"yaugapadyakramāyogād vyavacchedavidhānayoḥ aikyāyogācca bhedo na pratyakṣa iti yo bhramaḥ bhedetarābhāvavivekāgrahaṇena saḥ(sic.) svarūpameva bhāvānām pratyakṣeṇa parisphurat bhedavyāhārahetussyat pratiyogivyapekṣayā".

The verse, "yaugapadya...." etc. is quoted and explained by Sudarsana in his commentary on  $\dot{S}r\bar{i}bh\ddot{a}sya$ , Vol. I, p. 82.

 ${\rm Cf.}\, Brahmasiddhi$ : II. śl. 1. : "āhurvidhāt<br/>r pratyakṣaṁ na niṣeddhṛ vipaścitaḥ".

Also Ibid: II. śl. 4:

"vidhānameva naikasya vyavacchedo 'nyagocaraḥ māsma bhūdaviśeṣeṇa mā na bhūdekadhījuṣām".

1021. SS. pp. 325-26:

"evam vyavasthitānekaprakārākāravattayā pratyakṣasya prapańcasya tadbhāvo 'śakyanihnavaḥ". Yāmuna has thus proved that pratyaksa only establishes the reality of world-existence and not its indefinability, as claimed by the Advaitins. He then points out that scriptural texts too are not in their favour. Scriptures cannot be cited as a proof to the indefinability of the world, because the sole intention of the scriptures is in establishing something that is to be accomplished through action  $(k\bar{a}rya)$  but not the indefinability of an existent (siddha) thing. This reply, it should be noted, is purely from the viewpoint of the  $M\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}msakas$ . Even from the standpoint of the  $Ved\bar{a}ntins$  who hold that scriptures speak of already established entities, the Advaitic position cannot be correct, because scriptures do not teach anything indefinable. 1023

Moreover, the phrase, "neither sat nor asat", does not convey any sense at all, says Yāmuna. Inference too cannot establish the anirvacaniyatva—indefinability—of the world of difference. The Advaitins say that the world cannot be nonexistent (asat) for the reason that it is cognised as existent (sat), and also that it cannot be existent (sat) for the reason that it is sublated. The reason employed by the Advaitins is only a fallacy or a semblance of reason (hetväbhāsa), for we can conclude by that reason that the world is both existent (sat) as well as nonexistent (asat), says the author. Since the world is cognised, it can be called sat; it can also be called asat since it is sublated. Therefore, when this definition is possible, the Advaitins cannot posit indefinability to the world. 1024 The point to be noted here is that the factors of "existence" and "non-existence" become contradictory only when they are posited with one and the same entity in its essential form. As has already been pointed out, there is no contradiction in one and the same entity becoming existent as well as non-existent, when the influence of delimiting adjuncts like place and time is accepted. 1025

<sup>1022.</sup>  $\mathit{Ibid}$ . p. 326 : "āgamah kāryanisthatvādīdṛśe 'rthe na tu pramā".

<sup>1023.</sup> *Ibid.* : "prāmānye 'pyanvayāyogyapadārthatvānna bodhakah".

<sup>1024.</sup> Ibid.:

<sup>&</sup>quot;nāsat pratīter; bādhācca na sadityapi yanna tat pratītereva sat kim na? bādhānnāsat kuto jagat?".

<sup>1025.</sup> See p. 257 above.

Refuting the Advaitic theory of 'anirvacanīyatva' through logic, Yāmuna poses two alternatives: "Is the *mithyātva* (illusory character) attributed by the Advaitins to this world, real or unreal?" he asks. It cannot be real, for then, there being two real entitites, the oneness of the *Brahman* becomes sublated. On the other view, viz., that the '*mithyātva*' is unreal, the *Advaitic* position is utterly disproved, because what is not unreal become real and the Advaitins, therefore, have to admit the reality of the world-phenomenon. 1026

Yāmuna then criticises the *Advaitic* conception of the Monism of Existence (sadadvaita), that there is but a single Existence (sat) in the world and that the existences of all other objects in this world is illusory. This is called the 'sadadvaita' theory. But all the means of valid knowledge cognise the objects in this world as they are, and these objects are also found to be distinct not only from one another, but also from absolute non-existent entities such as a hare's born and sky-lotus. Thus, when we say, for instance, "There exists a pot" (ghato 'sti), we are positing existence with the pot; we are not equating it with non-existent entities or with a different object such as a piece of cloth. Our cognitions, which are the form, "This is a pot", "This is a cloth" and so on, point to the existence of a variety of objects, and thus one has to admit the plurality of existence.

But the Advaitins might put forth the following argument. When we say "ghoto 'sti'" (There is a pot), there are two things spoken of—the object pot and the existence of the pot. Now the Advaitins ask as to what is actually conveyed by the term 'asti' (exists, or is). If mere existence (sattva) is said to be conveyed by the term, to the exclusion of all entities, it only contributes

1026. See SS: pp. 326-27.

1027. Ibid. pp. 327-28:

"sarvānyeva pramānāni svam svamartham yathoditam asato 'rthāntarebhyaśca vyavacchindanti bhānti naḥ tathāhīha ghaṭo 'stīti yeyam dhīrupajāyate sā tadā tasya nābhāvam patatvam vānumanyate".

to their theory of "sadadvaita", according to which existence is unitary but not manifold. If, on the other hand, it is said that the term 'asti' in the above statement indicates something other than mere existence, this is what the Advaitins claim as 'indefinable' either as 'sat' or 'asat'. So, either of the two views is to be admitted, they say. 1028

But this is not a genuine argument, says Yāmuna. According to him, if the Advaitins want to apply this analysis to statements like "ghaṭo 'sti" and establish anirvacanīyatva (indefinability) with regard to each and every object, such an analysis will have to be extended to Upaniṣadic texts such as "asti brahma" 1029 also, as there is no reason as to why this analysis should not be applied universally. Other Upaniṣadic texts like 'ānando brahma" 1030 and "satyam jñānamanantam brahma" 1031 will also be reduced to the same fate of 'anirvacanīyatva' through this type of analysis. Yāmuna further points out that the same argument, when applied to the Advaitic declaration, "prapañcah sadasadanirvacanīyah", 1032 would result in the world being something different from sadasadanirvacanīya, that is to say, definable, which, however, is directly opposed to the Advaitic intentions.

Therefore, points out Yāmuna in conclusion, when we make such statements as 'ghato 'sti' and "pato 'sti", we are positively asserting the reality of objects like a pot and a piece of cloth, possessing particular forms and modes. So, what is meant by the existence (sattā) of an entity is the real existence of that particular entity in its essential form and modes, as distinguished from those of other entities of similar and dissimilar classes. This existence (sattā), which is the meaning

<sup>1028.</sup> Ibid: p. 328.

<sup>1029.</sup> Taittiriya Upanişad: II. 6. 1.

<sup>1030.</sup> Ibid.: III. 6.

<sup>1031.</sup> Ibid.: II. i. 1.

<sup>1032.</sup> Cf. Tattvopadeśa (Minor Works of Śankara) : p. 23 : śls. 52-53a :

<sup>&</sup>quot;vidyate na svatah sattvam näsatah sattvamasti vä bādhyatvännaiva saddvaitam näsat pratyakṣabhānatah sadasanna viruddhatvādato 'nirvācyameva tat''.

of the verbal root "as" (to be), is dependent upon other factors also, as for instance, the agent of action. Therefore, there is no truth in the *Advaitic* assertion that the existence of objects is unitary and independent. 1033

The author then proceeds to examine the conception of the Monism of Consciousness (Cidadvaita), that there is only one Consciousness and that the plurality of consciousness is only illusory. This view is untenable, he says, because we experience the plurality of cognitions in our everyday life. These cognitions differ according to the objects, the agents and the means of knowledge. Even when the Advaitins say that Samvit (Consciousness) is devoid of all attributes, they, in other words, are only positing the quality of 'attributelessness' (nirvisesatva) with Samvit. That is why they have to accept that cognitions are varied and distinct from, but not identical with the external objects. It is to be noted here is that Yāmuna has already refuted the view which equates the cogniser (jñātr) and the cognised (jñeya) with cognition (jñāna) itself. 1034

The Advaitins might argue that since knowledge and its object are presented together in a cognition, the latter cannot be distinguished from the former. Since the cogniser and the cognised which are not self-luminous are represented invariably together with self-luminous Consciousness (samvit-sahopalambha), they cannot be distinguished from Samvit. So, the world of plurality of the knowers and the known is only the result of Vivarta—Transfiguration of Samvit, contend the Advaitins. 1035

It may be noted that the idealistic Yogācāra Buddhists who also adopt the sahopalambha argument, try to explain the external forms of objects such as a blue pot, yellow cloth, etc., as mere creations of  $v\bar{a}san\bar{a}$  (latent impressions) and that they are thus illusory. The Advaitins say that the distinctions are all created in Consciousness through ignorance  $(avidy\bar{a})$ . Refuting

these views, Yāmuna says that they are opposed to our practical experience. Ocular perception vouchsafes the mutual distinctions of cognisers, cognitions and the objects cognised, and this point cannot be disproved through Inference. Thus, for instance, when we perceive an object, there arises the clear judgement in the form, 'I know this' (ahamidam samvedmi); and this judgement involves the triple entity—the cognition, the cogniser and the cognised, each clearly marked off from the other. Therefore, Inference which tries to prove something directly opposed to Perception cannot be accepted as valid.

Further, the Advaitins cannot achieve their end through sahopalambha reasoning. The reason, "being presented together" (sahopalambha), implies the acceptance of two entities (for, the term 'saha' means 'along with'). This co-presentation can take place only in the case of two different entities. Even the Advaitins have to accept this because they cannot say Consciousness is presented along with Consciousness itself. So, the entity that is presented along with Samvit should necessarily be distinct from it. 1036

It may, however, be urged that in the state of deep sleep knowledge exists in its mere unqualified form without the association of any entity and that the objects do not have this characteristic, viz., independent manifestation so much so that knowledge alone becomes real and eternal and that the objects cognised in external experience are merely illusory. But this explanation disproves the assertion of the Advaitins themselves, says the author. They say that mere Samvit shines forth in deep sleep, without any presentation of the object-content. If we apply the sahopalambha-argument here, it would mean that just as Samvit can exist without any object, so also, the object can exist even without Samvit, which only establishes the independent character of objects. If this is not admitted, the Advaitins cannot

<sup>1033.</sup> SS. pp. 328-29.

<sup>1034.</sup> Ibid: pp. 329-330.

<sup>1035.</sup> Ibid. p. 330-31.

<sup>1036.</sup> *Ibid.* pp. 331-32:

<sup>&</sup>quot;maivam smārthān paribhavah pratyakṣeṇa balīyasā samrakṣyamāṇabhedāste nānumānānuvartinah";

<sup>&</sup>quot;praytakṣapratipakṣam ca nānumānam pravartate"; "kiñca hetur viruddho'yam sahabhāvo dvayoryataḥ tavāpi na hi samvittissvātmanā saha bhāsate".

employ the sahopalambha-argument, so much so that the reason sahopalambhatva (being presented together), would become asidda (unestablished).

The sahopalambha-argument is also vitiated by the fallacy of vyabhicāra in the instance of individual cognitions of different objects like a pot and a cloth. If the sahopalambha-rule were applied here, it would mean that a pot can also be cognised by the cognition which apprehends a piece of cloth and so on, which is absurd. If, however, the Advaitins do not admit the validity of the sahopalambha-reasoning, this only strengthens the standpoint of the Siddhantin, since the entire range of cognisable objects, along with their internal features of universal (sāmānya) and particular (visesa) stands clearly distinguished from Consciousness.

Form this point onwards, the text of the Samvitsiddhi breaks off, which incidentally marks the end of the work itself.

# MISSING PASSAGES OF THE SAMVITSIDDHI—A STUDY

We have already pointed out in the beginning 1037 that some of the passages missing from the available text of the Samvitsiddhi are quoted by Sudarsanasūri in his commentary on Rāmānuja's Śrībhāṣya. The passages quoted by Vedāntadeśika in some of his works are identical with those quoted by Sudarsana.

The passages quoted by Sudarsanasūri are:

I. "vadyaprakāśamānā dhīḥ kadācidavatiṣṭhate

ghaţādāviva tatrāpi kalpanīyam prakāśakam" 1038

1037. See p. 140 above.

1038. See Śribhāsya with Śrutaprakāśikā (Vidyātarangiņī Press, Mysore) Vol. I: p. 85. Sudarsana introduces these lines with the remark: "yathā samvitsiddhau- 'yadyaprakāsamānā dhīh kadācidavatisthate' ityārabhya 'ghatādāviva tatrāpi kalpanīyam iti", by which we can infer that some portion is missing between these two lines.

From the context, in appears that these lines put forth the Advaitic argument regarding the self-luminous character of Samvit. Samvit, the Advaitins say, should be admitted as selfluminous because, when it exists, it would manifest its own self also, unlike a pot, etc. If Samvit is said to simply exist, without manifesting itself, then, as in the case of a pot and the like, it becomes necessary to posit some other entity which would manifest this Samvit. The point here is that there would be the defect of anavasthā if another factor manifesting Samvit is admitted. Since Samvit does not stand in need of any other thing other than itself for its manifestation, it has to be admitted as self-luminous, say the Advaitins.

## II. The next passage quoted is:

"ghato 'yamiti vijñāne ghatamātram prakāsate na vittiriti yusmākam gosthīsu nanu ghusvate" 1039

This, occuring in the same context as the above, puts forth the Advaitins' ctiticism of the Bhatta-view that in all objective cognitions, the objects alone are presented first and that there would be no question of the manifestation of Samvit at that time. It is only later, as in the reflective judgement, 'I know this pot', that the cognition (samvit) becomes manifest. This view of the Bhāttas is referred to in the above couplet.

## III. Another passage, of the same context, is:

"atīte 'nāgate cārthe katham prākatyasambhavah na hi dharminyasatyeva dharmah sambhavamrechati" 1040

The Bhāttas try to infer the existence of knowledge in a man regarding the object he sees, through the adventitious property called 'prākatya' (manifestedness) pertaining to the object. The verse quoted above controverts this view of the Bhāttas, from the Advaitic standpoint. Since prākatva is admitted by the Bhattas as a property of objects, it is difficult for them to explain as to how this prākatva could pertain to objects of the

<sup>1039.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>1040.</sup> See Śrībhāsya with Śrutaprakāśikā: Vol. I: p. 87.

past and future, which do not exist at the present moment. It is clear that mere attributes cannot exist without a substratum. But we are able to render objects of past and future fit for cognition through remembrance and imaginative thinking, and hence the untenability of the *Bhātta*-theory of 'prākatya'.

IV. Another verse quoted by Sudarsana is:

"tadevāpasyatām sarvasūnyatvāt bibhyatām satām gatissvayamprakāsatvādṛte nānyopalabhayate" 1041

This verse again puts forth the Advaitic criticism of the *Bhātṭa*-view regarding *Samvit*. In the previous quotation, it has been pointed out that 'prākaṭya' cannot be made the property of objects. Therefore, knowledge cannot be inferred through the property 'manifestedness' (prākaṭya), and no other knowledge can also be assumed to manifest the first cognition arising out of the sense-object contact. Therefore, admission of self-luminous character with regard to Consciousness (samvit) becomes a necessity. If this is not admitted, *Samvit* would become non-existent and all that depends upon it would also turn out to be non-existent.

#### CHAPTER V

## YĀMUNA'S PHILOSOPHY

Having given in the foregoing sections a detailed analysis and account of the treatment of important concepts of philosophy from different works of Yāmunācārya, we shall now bring together and present, in a codified and succinct manner, Yāmuna's concepts of (a) the individual self (jīva), (b) the Supreme Self (Īśvara), (c) the relation between God and the world of spirit and matter, (d) moksa and the role of Laksmī (e) bhakti and prapatti (śaranāgati)—the means of mukti and (f) the characteristics of the state of mukti.

## (a) Individual Self (Jīva):

The individual self, according to Yāmuna, is quite distinct from the physical body, the senses, the mind, the vital breath and the intellect. It is self-luminous, eternal, subtle and distinct in each body; that is, there are as many individual selves as there are bodies. The soul is essentially blissful. 1042 It is these characteristics that Yāmuna establishes with regard to the self in his Ātmasiddhi.

While establishing the above, Yāmuna refutes the purely materialistic position taken by the Cārvākas, the idealistic position of the Vijñānavādin Buddhists, the Advaitic view of the ātman being one and of the nature of consciousness, and lastly the Nyāya conception of individual selves, which is not far removed from that of Yāmuna himself. The essential tenet of Yāmuna is that jñāna is an integral and inseparable attribute of the jīva; that is, he is opposed to the Advaitic conception of the ātman as of the form of pure knowledge. The ātman is self-luminous and not dependent upon any other factor or condition, as contended by the Mīmāmsakas. According to the Bhāṭṭas and the Prābhākaras, ātman is not self-manifest. It depends upon jñāna either as its substratum or as something inferred therefrom, and as such, cannot be self-luminous. These views are

also refuted by Yāmuna at great length. Another important thing, according to Yāmuna, as according to Rāmānuja, is that the individual self is anu or atomic in size. Although the text relating to this topic is not available, this is to be taken as his view, from this statement that the ātman is "vyāpī", 1043 which, according to Rāmānuja, means "anu". 1044 The word "vyāpī", indicates that the jīva feels pleasure and pain in any part of the body though his Attributive Consciousness (dharmabhūtajñāna) which pervades the entire body.

Yāmuna has also, in the course of his arguments, refuted the Advaita and the Prābhākara views that the entity 'aham' (I) does not constitute the self. He has proved that the ātman is identical with the entity called 'aham' (I) and that it continues to exist even in states of deep sleep and mokṣa. He has also stressed that mokṣa ceases to become a human end (puruṣārtha) if it is devoid of the idea of 'I' (aham) pertaining to the self. The word "aham" means self-awareness which is experienced by all living beings. It does not in this context, either mean "pride" or "ahankāra", a product of prakṛti.

According to Yāmuna, the means of establishing the jīva as distinct from the body, senses, etc., is two-fold: śruti and śrutyarthāpatti, i.e., presumption arising from the incompatibility of Vedic texts. 1045 In this connection, he has also controverted the position taken by the Sānkhyas and the Naiyāyikas who try to prove the existence of the self through Inference (anumāna). The Sānkhyas infer the ātman on the ground that it is the entity subserved by other collocations (saṅghāta), that it is the reverse of the trinity of 'gunas' etc., whereas the Naiyāyikas infer it on the ground of its being the substrate of qualities like icchā and jñāna. These inferences, says Yāmuna, may infer some seat for the gunas, or some entity that is subserved by collocations and so on, but they fail to show specifically that that particular entity is the ātman itself.

1043. See the above verse, second line.

1044. See Śrībhāṣya under I. i. 1 : Vol. I : p. 154.

1045. Cf. AS. pp. 139-40:

"kālāntarabhāvisvargādisādhanavidhayascāksipanti dehādivyatiriktam nityam cetanamiti srutitadanupapattipramāṇako 'yam pratyagātmeti".

Yāmuna also points out that means of knowledge  $(pram\bar{a}na)$  like Inference and  $\bar{A}gama$  are necessary for us to grasp the real nature of the self. The most important among these  $pram\bar{a}nas$ , according to him, is yogic perception.

# (b) The Supreme Self (Īśvara):

As already pointed out, the *Īśvarasiddhi* of Yāmuna, which purports to deal with the question of a Supreme Creator-God for the universe of matter and spirit, is not completely available. After refuting the *Mīmāmsaka*'s views that God is not necessary and presenting the *Nyāya*-view of God, the text breaks off somewhat abruptly. It is from Rāmānuja's works and in a general way, from Yāmuna's *Stotraratna* and the *Catuśślokī* which describe the Supreme, we can form an idea of Yāmuna's concept of God.

From the opening verse of the available text of the Iśvarasiddhi, 1046 it apppears that the Supreme Being is the Prime Controller of the universe. From different verses in the Stotraratna, we gather that the Lordship of the Supreme Being in unexcelled and natural with Him, 1047 that the whole universe is but a fragement of His Being, 1048 and that He is possessed of infinite good qualities. 1049 That is, as against the Advaitic conception of the unqualified nirguna-Brahman, for Yāmuna, Brahman is saguna. In the stanza, "na deham", 1050 we have the concept of the śeṣatva of the universe, of which we shall say more later on. Unlike the Advaitin who holds the Supreme Being as of the form of knowledge (jñāna), Yāmuna regards the Supreme Being as the possessor of knowledge. Among His infinite qualities, that which draws the devotee's devotion, is grace (dayā)

<sup>1046.</sup> Cf.  $\ddot{I}S$ . p.225: "tatra kasyacidekasya vaśe viśvam pravartate"

<sup>1047.</sup> Cf. SR. : śls. 6 and 11a.

<sup>1048.</sup> Cf. Ibid. sl. 12c, d:

<sup>&</sup>quot;kasyäyutäyutasataikakalämsakämse visvam vicitracidacitpravibhägavṛttam"

<sup>1049.</sup> Cf.  $\mathit{Ibid}$ . śl. 18 : "vaśi vadānyo...samastakalyāṇaguṇāmṛtodadhiḥ"

<sup>1050.</sup> Ibid. śl. 57 :

<sup>&</sup>quot;na deham...nānyat kimapi tava sesatvavibhavāt bahirbhūtam nātha! kṣaṇamapi sahe"

which blesses him with salvation. From Rāmānuja's works<sup>1051</sup> which are based on Yāmuna's, we can add that as Creator, God for Yāmuna is both *upādāna* (the material cause) and *nimitta* (the efficient cause) of the universe and not merely *nimitta*, as for the *Naiyāyikas*.

The  $pram\bar{a}na$  that establishes the Supreme Bieng, according to Yāmuna, would seem to be  $\bar{a}gama$ —scriptural statements, as in the case of the individual selves. Yāmuna, who had refuted Inference  $(anum\bar{a}na)$  as a means of establishing the existence of the  $j\bar{v}va$ , would not have accepted its instrumentality in establishing the Supreme. 1052

According to Yāmuna, there are three realities in this world: cit, acit and  $\bar{I}svara$ . The world of spirit and matter is only an aspect of the Supreme Being,  $\bar{I}svara$ . The very opening verse of the  $\bar{A}tmasiddhi$  points out that the entire world of men and matter runs its course under the will of the Divine Couple, "Śrīmān" (Laksmī-Nārāyaṇa). 1064

The Godhead, according to our author, constitutes the Supreme Being Nārāyana in association with His Consort, Lakṣmī. The concept of God in His motherly aspect of love and affection for the creation, gave rise to the concept of Lakṣmī and, according to Yāmuna, Lakṣmī, by virtue of her close association with the Lord, can mediate between man and the Lord. We have also, in the section on the Śrīstuti (Catuśślokī) of our author, described the origin and growth of this concept of God and His Consort, 1055 which might be said to have attained its consummation in the Visiṣṭādvaita, in the Divine, All-powerful and Merciful Couple of Śrīmannārāyaṇa. The author has also stressed the philosophical necessity of such a concept by saying that one who seeks liberation should resort to Śrī and Viṣṇu, one after the other, whole-heartedly. 1056

(c) The relation between God and the world of spirit and matter:

It appears from the introductory part of the *Ātmasiddhi* that the author originally dealt with the relation that exists between the Supreme Being and the world of sentient and insentient entities. 1057 But the gap in the text does not allow us to know what Yāmuna actually said on this point.

The Brhadāranyaka passages quoted by Yāmuna towards the end of the extant text of the  $\bar{A}tmasiddhi^{1058}$  present a clear picture of the relation between God and the world of spirit and matter: "vasya prthivī sarīram; vasyāpah sarīram; yasyātmā śarīram". 1059 The relation subsisting between the world of spirit and matter, and the Supreme Being is that which subsists between the body and its soul-śarīra-ātma-bhāva or śarīraśarīri-bhāva. God is the inner self (antaryāmin) of the individual selves as well as the material world. Yāmuna, introducing the above Upanisadic texts, says "antaryāmibrāhmane", 1060 and thus it is clear that our statement is quite in accordance with Yāmuna's concept of the relation between God and man. The point to be noted here is that the individual self has the Supreme Being as its inward self directly, whereas the prakrti has Him as inward self, indirectly, that is, through the medium of the jīva. The passage "yasyātmā śarīram" is of special significance for us because it not only points out the difference between the Lord and the *iīva* but also strengthens our statement about śarīraśarīri relation. This is found in the Mādhyandina-recension of the Upanisad, says Rāmānuja in his Śrībhāsya. (I.2.19).

Some of the passages of the Samvitsiddhi also corroborate the above concept:

Cf. Samvitsiddhi: pp. 275-76:

"pādo 'sya viśvā bhūtāni tripādasyāmṛtam divi

ityādikāssamastasya taditthambhāvatāparāh"

.

<sup>1051.</sup> Vide Vedärthasangraha: p. 31: "...upādānakāranatvam pratipādya nimittakāranamapi tadeveti pratipādavanti..."

<sup>1052.</sup> Cf. AS.-p. 139: "...ānumānikī mapyātmasiddhimas raddadhānāḥ srautī meva tām s rotriyās sangirante".

<sup>1053.</sup> Cf. SR. śl. 4: "tattvena yaścidacidiśvara..." etc. Cf. also AP. p. 87: "svayogamahimapratyakṣatattvatrayah"

<sup>1054.</sup> AS. p. 1 : "prakṛtipuruṣakāla...śrīmati prīyamāṇe" etc.

<sup>1055.</sup> See pp. 18-30 above.

<sup>1056.</sup> See sis. 2 and 3 of the CS. and also pp. 42-44 above.

<sup>1057.</sup> Cf. pp. 12-13 : "tathā ātmaparamātmanossambandhe'pi", etc.

<sup>1058.</sup> Cf. pp. 214-15: "ata eva hyantaryāmibrāhmane" etc.

<sup>1059.</sup> Bṛhadāraṇyaka : V-7.

<sup>1060.</sup> See note 1058.

The entire universe (samasta) of sentient and insentient entities is only a mode (itthambhāva) or prakāra of the Supreme; that is to say, the relation between the world and God is what is called prakāra-prakāri-bhāva, which in later terminology, can to be characterised as śarīra-śaīri-bhāva.

Cf. another passage from the Samvitsiddhi: pp. 277-78 : "ananyat kāraṇāt kāryam pāvakāt visphulingavat".

This passage points out that the Supreme Being is the root-cause of the entire world-manifestation and that the world has emerged out of Him like sparks from fire, which means that it is His own aspect. The concept involving the simile, "pāvakāt visphulingavat", indeed, goes back to the Āthrvanika-śrtuti: "tadetat satyam yathā sudīptāt pāvakāt visphulingāḥ sahasraśah prabhavante sarūpāḥ, tathā akṣarāt vividhāssomya bhāvāḥ prajāyante". 1061

Cf. another passage from the Samvitsiddhi : p. 279 : "brahmātmanā atmalābho'yam prapañcah cidacinmayah".

This passage speaks out that the world of *cit* and *acit* attains its full status only by having the *Brahman* as its inward self and thus the relation of the *śarīra-śarīrin* becomes more clear. This relation is further called "tādātmya".

Cf. Sanwitsiddhi, p. 293: "asakṛt tattvamityāha tādātmyam" etc. This tādātmya or identity should be understood not as essential identity, but as identity in terms of the śarīra-śarīri-relation, as has been explained above. The Chāndogya makes it clear that the Brahman Himself is the inner Self of everything: "aitadātmyamidam sarvam.... tattvamasi śvetaketo" [VI. viii. 6.]

A study of the *Catuśślokī* and *Stotraratna* would reveal that the individual soul is naturally and eternally subordinate to the Supreme and that the relation between them can be interpreted in many ways—as that which exists between a servant and his master (*bhrtya-svāmi-bhāva*), 1062 the owner and the owned (*sva-svāmi-bhāva*), 1063 the mother and her child (*mātr*-

 $sisu)^{1064}$  or even the father and his son  $(pitr-putra)^{1065}$  and so on. In the opening verse of the  $Catusslok\bar{\imath}$ ,  $\dot{S}r\bar{\imath}$  is said to have Brahmä and other orders of divinity, along with their consorts, as her subordinates.  $^{1066}$  So, these beings would also stand in the same relation to Viṣṇu.

Dr. S.N. Dasgupta, in his *History of Indian Philosophy*, <sup>1067</sup> says: "Yāmuna thus gives us hardly any new ideas about Īśvara and His relation to the souls and the world." We do not know in what sense Dr. Dasgupta uses the words, "new ideas". The relation between man and God, we have shown above, can be interpreted as *prakāra-prakāri-bhāva*, śarīra-śarīri-bhāva, śeṣa-śeṣi-bhāva, etc. and it is the śarīra-śarīri-bhāva that became one of the cardinal tenents of Rāmānuja's philosophy. It is because of the "newness" of Yāmuna's ideas that a new school was built up by Rāmānuja.

Another charge levelled by Dasgupta is that "Yamuna does not make inquiry into the nature of the reality of the worldappearance as not false". Such criticisms are beside the point, for, as we have often pointed out, we do not have the full text of any of the three siddhis comprising the Siddhitraya of Yāmuna. We have also shown in the previous chapter that certain portions of the Samvitsiddhi refute the Advaita-concept of anirvacanīyatva regarding the world. Moreover, Yāmuna, who makes it a point to criticise the Advaita, would not have left this basic point. Dasgupta again observes: "Yāmuna is also silent about the methods which a person should adopt for procuring salvation and the nature and characteristics of that state". The answer is the same as to the previous criticism. But it would be clear for any one who has gone through the Stotraratna and the Gītārathasangraha, that Yāmuna explicity states the means of achieving salvation and the nature of that state, both of which we have explained earlier in detail.

<sup>1061.</sup> Mundaka : II. i. 1.

<sup>1062.</sup> Cf. SR. śl 60: "pitā tvam...tvadbhṛtyaḥ" etc.

<sup>1063.</sup> Cf. Ibid. śl. 53: "mama nātha yadasti....niyatasvamiti" etc.

<sup>1064.</sup> Cf. *Ibid.* śl. 26 : "nirāsakasyāpi....śiśuḥ...na jātu mātuścaraṇau" etc.

<sup>1065.</sup> Cf. Ibid. śl. 60: "pitā tvam" etc.

<sup>1066.</sup> Cf. : "kāntaste purusottamaḥ" etc., where the phrase "tvaddāsadāsīgaṇaḥ" occurs.

<sup>1067.</sup> Vol. III. p. 155.

## (d) Mokṣa and the role of Lakṣmī:

According to Yāmuna, the state of release is characterised by the individual self being free from the body, his realisation that he is part and parcel of the body of the Godhead, his enjoyment of bliss in that condition and so on. This bliss, being unlimited and unconditioned, is of the very nature of the Lord's bliss.

Yāmuna also suggests that mokşa for the self is of the form of  $s\bar{a}yujya$  with the Lord in the capacity of His eternal and unconditional servant. This ' $s\bar{a}yujya$ ' is considered superior to other grades of mokşa, viz.,  $s\bar{a}lokya$ ,  $s\bar{a}m\bar{i}pya$  and  $s\bar{a}r\bar{u}pya$ .

As we have observed earlier in a separate section, 1070 the role of Lakṣmī in effecting mokṣa for the jīva is equally important as that of the Lord Himself. Lakṣmī, the Consort of Viṣṇu, happens to be the Mother and Mistress of the universe and the relation of the jīva to the Divine Couple of Lakṣmī-Nārāyaṇa is that of a servant to his master or that of a child to its parents. Lakṣmī is also conceived of as the mediator between man and the Lord. Lakṣmī, the personification of the mercy of the Supreme, is necessary for the release of the jīva and prapatti or śaraṇāgati to her, as to the Supreme, is ordained as the way for mokṣa.

## (e) Bhakti and Prapatti—the means of mukti:

The means of release, according to Yāmuna, consists of either bhakti or prapatti. Bhakti, according to him, results from

the twin yoga of karma and  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$ .  $^{1071}$  Karma leads to  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$  and this results in  $vair\tilde{a}gya$ . It is from  $vair\tilde{a}gya$  that Bhakti is produced. The supreme state of devotion called parabhakti is the result of the Lord's grace alone.  $^{1072}$ 

The germs of bhakti and prapatti are found in Upanisads and the Pāñcarātrāgamas. Bhakti is referred to as vedana, upāsana, etc., in the Upanisadic terminology. The Śvetāśvatara has a specific statement on prapatti or Surrender to the Supreme: "mumuksurvai śaraṇamaham prapadye". 1073 The Śrīsūkta of the Rgveda Khila emphasises the importance of surrendering to Śrī: "tām padmanemīm śaraṇamaham prapadye"; 1074 and we have a similar statement in the Durgāsūkta, also of the Rgveda Khila, "durgām devīm śaraṇamaham prapadye". 1075 Prapatti or śaraṇāgati is dealt with in the Ahirbudhnya Samhitā, 1076 the Bhāradvāja Samhitā, 1077 the Lakṣmī Tantra 1078 and other texts of the Pāńcarātra literature.

As already pointed out, bhakti and prapatti are the two means of attaining the Highest, among which prapatti is considered superior to and easier than bhakti. 1079 Bhakti consists of loving devotion to the Lord, accompained by other acts like meditation, service, purity of thought, word and deed, and so on. But prapatti does not have any such difficult subsidiary acts. Though easier to practise in this regard, prapatti is, at the same

<sup>1068.</sup> Cf. SR. sl. 63:

<sup>&</sup>quot;raghuvara yadabhūstvam tādṛśo vāyasasya

pratipadamaparāddhurmugdha sāyujyado'bhūḥ"

<sup>1069.</sup> Cf. the following quoted by Vedantadesika in his Nyāyasiddhānjana : Pariccheda II:p.221 (Vedāntadesikagranthamālā Series) :

<sup>&</sup>quot;lokeşu vişnor nivasanti kecit samipyamrıchanti ca kecidanye anye tu rüpam sadısam bhajante, sayujyamanye sa tu mokşa uktah".

<sup>1070.</sup> See p. 39 ff. above

<sup>1071.</sup> Vide GS. śl. la : "svadharmajñānavairāgyasādhyabhaktye-kagocaraḥ" etc.

<sup>1072.</sup>  $\mathit{Ibid}$ . śl. 26 : "nirastanikhilāj<br/>ñāno...pratilabhya parām bhaktim" etc.

<sup>1073.</sup> VI. 18.

<sup>1074.</sup> Rk. 5.

<sup>1075.</sup> Rgveda. X-127-12: "tāmagnivarņām..."etc.

<sup>1076.</sup> Vol. II. ch. 37 and also ch. 54.

<sup>1077.</sup> Chs. 1-4.

<sup>1078.</sup> Ch. 17.

<sup>1079.</sup> Lokācārya, Varavaramuni and other followers of the Southern School do not regard Prapatti as a means. The Lord is the only means in their view. The Lord's uncaused grace brings about prapatti which thus precedes the attainment of mokṣa. In these circumstances prapatti is an adhikāri-viśeṣaṇa, a characteristic attribute of the attainer of mokṣa.

time, considered to be the most difficult path for the reason that lack of whole-hearted conviction  $(mah\bar{a}vi\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa)$ , etc., which is one of the accessories to prapatti, would render prapatti impossible. 1080

Prapatti is to be practised to the exclusion of the triple path of karma,  $j \tilde{n} \tilde{a} n a$  and bhakti. Another point is that prapatti to the Lord is to be preceded by that to  $\tilde{S}r\bar{\imath}$ , if the former is to become fruitful and these two prapattis are mutually complementary.

## (f) The characteristics of the state of 'mukti':

According to Yāmuna, mokṣa for the individual self is not only cessation of all worldly miseries, but enjoyment of unending bliss in the servitude of the Lord and His Consort. The opening verse of the Ātmasiddhi implies that the summun bonum of human life is paricaraṇa or servitude to the Supreme Being. The Catuśślokī (v.3) indicates that "akṣara" (kaivalya) also can be obtained through the grace of Śrī. The Stotraratna (vv. 46, 57) also clearly states that what one should aspire for in the state of liberation is eternal subordination and service to the Lord (cf. aikāntika-nityakinkaraḥ, śeṣatvavibhava etc.). The released soul, along with the ever-released ones (nitya-sūris), is said to attend upon the Supreme Being in the Highest Abode (paramapada or vaikunṭha). Another point to be noted is that the self, even in mokṣa, possesses the notion of "aham" (I) and does not lose it, as held by a section of the Advaitins and the Mīmāmsakas. 1083

## CHAPTER VI

#### YĀMUNA'S INFLUENCE ON RĀMĀNUJA

We have earlier noticed that all the works of Rāmānuja reveal the great influence of Yamuna and his works. 1084 A close comparison of the Śrībhās ya with Siddhitraya reveals that the latter forms the source-book of the former. The refutation of the Samvicadvaita (the Monism of Consciousness) and Sadadvaita (the Monism of Existence) theories of the Advaitins is made by Rāmānuja almost in the words of Yāmuna. The demonstration that self is the entity called "aham" (I), the knower, is also done by Rāmānuja on the model of Yāmuna's Ātmasiddhi. Not only are some of the passages of the Atmasiddhi like "śāntāngāra" 1085 and "vyangyavyanktrtvam" 1086 quoted by Rāmānuja in his Śrībhās va, but several others are paraphrased with slight modifications. The opening verse of the  $\hat{S}r\bar{i}bh\bar{a}sya$  runs almost like the opening stanza of the Atmasiddhi. 1087 The śāstrayonitvasection of the  $\acute{S}r\ddot{\imath}bh\bar{a}$ ş ya follows almost verbatim the *Īśvarasiddhi*, and as we have already pointed out, the siddhāntaview given by Rāmānuja regarding the means of establishing God in his Sribhas va, might indicate or detail what Yamuna himself might have said on the question.

## Cf. AS. opening verse:

<sup>1080.</sup> See p. 40 above.

<sup>1081.</sup> Cf. SR.  $\pm$ 1. 22 : "na dharmanistho'smi na cātmavedi na bhaktimān" etc.

<sup>1082.</sup> Cf. SS. p. 293: "brahmānandahradāntasstho muktātmā sukhamedhate".

Cf. SR: śls. 37, ff.

<sup>1083.</sup> See AS. p. 104 : 'anyacca yah sāmsārikaduhkhaih..." etc. and p. 106 : "sa ca muktāvapyātmane ahamityeva prakāsate' etc.

<sup>1084.</sup> See p. 3 above.

<sup>1085.</sup> Śrībhāṣya under I. i. i. p. 143 (vol. 1) quotes this from AS: p. 94.

<sup>1086.</sup> Ibid. The verse quoted is from AS: p. 95.

<sup>1087.</sup> Cf. Śrībhāṣya: the opening stanza:
 "akhilabhuvanajanmasthemabhaṅgädilile
 vinatavividhabhūtavrātarakṣaikadīkṣe
 śrutiśirasi vidīpte brahmaṇi śrīnivāse
 bhavatu mama parasmin śemuṣī bhaktirūpā".

<sup>&</sup>quot;prakṛtipuruṣakālavyaktamuktā yadicchām anuvidadhati nityam nityasiddhairanekaiḥ svaparicaraṇabhogaiśśrīmati prīyamāṇe bhavatu mama parasmin pūruṣe bhaktibhūmā".

Some passages of the Samvitsiddhi are also used by Rāmānuja so as to refute the Advaitic doctrines of māvā, mukti. the unreality of the world, etc. The fact that the world of spirit and matter is a mode or prakāra of the Brahman, stated by Yāmuna in his Samvitsiddhi, is clearly analysed and adopted by Rāmānuja. The refutation of the explanation offered by the Advaitins for the text, "tattvamasi", 1088 found in the Samvitsiddhi, finds its echo in the Śrībhās ya. That the secondary significance  $(laksan\bar{a})$  of words is applied only to one of the two terms appearing in a "sāmānādhikaranya" - statement like "tattvamasi", but not to both the terms, and that one and the same entity can be treated as being different as well as non-different, according to delimiting factors like time and place, which are referred to briefly in the Samvitsiddhi, are set forth in great detail by Rāmānuja in his works like the  $\hat{S}r\bar{\imath}bh\bar{a}sva$  and the Vedārthasangraha.

Another important tenet of Rāmānuja's philosophy, viz., the conception of knowledge as an eternal and invariable attribute (dharma) of the individual self (ātman), technically called dharmabhūtajñāna, finds its basis in the Ātmasiddhi of Yāmuna. On the authority of Vedāntadesika, we know that the portion of the Vedārthasangraha of Rāmānuja, dealing with the Supremacy of Viṣṇu over other deities, is based on the Puruṣanirnya or Yāmuna, On which, however, is not available. The opening verse of the Vaikunthagadya Makes clear the fact that Rāmānuja followed Yāmuna in forming the concept of Bhakti. The passage at the beginning of the Śaranāgatigadya Of Rāmanuja, referring to Śrī, is influenced by Yāmuna's

Catuśślok $\hat{i}$  regarding the Doctrine of Surrender (śaranāgati) to Śr $\hat{i}$ . The explanations offered by Rāmānuja in his Śr $\hat{i}$ bhāṣya for the Pāñcarātra and Pāśupata adhikaraṇas are based on the interpretation of these sections given in the Āgamaprāmāṇya. 1098

The relation subsisting between man and God, the śarīra-śrīri-bhāva and the śeṣa-śeṣi-bhāva traced in Yāmuna's works, gained new impetus and stress at the hands of Rāmānuja. The commentary on the Bhagavadgītā by Rāmānuja is chiefly based on the Gītārthasaṅgraha of Yāmuna. It has already been mentioned that tradition records Rāmānuja's being attracted to Yāmuna after listening to a particular stanza of the Stotraratna. 1094

The devotion and regard which Rāmānuja had for this great teacher and his compositions, can well be understood by the following verse ascribed to Rāmānuja himself:

"yatpadāmbhoruhadhyānavidhvastāsesakalmasah vastutāmupayāto 'ham yāmuneyam namāmi tam"

<sup>1088.</sup> Chāndogya: VI. viii. 6.

<sup>1089.</sup> See AS: p. 172, ff.

<sup>1090.</sup> Nyāyasiddhāñjana : ch. III. p. 225 and Saccaritrarakṣā . ch. I : p. 46.

<sup>1091.</sup> Cf:

<sup>&</sup>quot;yāmunāryasudhāmbhodhimavagāhya yathāmati ādāya bhaktiyogākhyam ratnam samdarsayāmyaham".

<sup>1092.</sup> Cf. "Om bhagavannārāyaṇābhimatānurūpasvarūparūpaguṇavibhavaiśvarya", etc. with CŚ.

<sup>1093.</sup> See AP: p. 47 f. and 57 ff.

<sup>1094.</sup> Vide Prapannāmṛta: ch. IX, p. 22, where Rāmānuja is said to have been attracted to Yāmuna after listening to verse 11 of his SR. starting with "svābhāvikānavadhika" etc.

#### CHAPTER VII

## EVALUATION OF YĀMUNA'S CONTRIBUTION TO VIŚISTĀDVAITA

In the foregoing chapters, a detailed account of Yāmuna's extant works has been attempted with a view to present a fairly faithful and complete picture of the role he played in developing the school of thought which had its scholastic beginnings in the works of Nathamuni and its emotional appeal in the songs of the Tamil mystic saints. Alvars, Strictly speaking, the expression "Yāmuna's Contribution to Visistādvaita" may sound a little queer because the name "Visistādvaita" is itself a post-Rāmānuja appellation. 1095 Rāmānuja uses the word "Viśista-dravyaikya". 1096 There is also one independent track explaining the significance of the word "Visistādvaita" 1097 This can be explained as a Sixth Case Compound ("Sasthi Tatpurusa Samāsa") in a twofold manner; (a) Viśistasya Advaitam, and (b) Viśistayor Advaitam. The first expression can be interpreted as the non-duality (advaitam) of One who is Qualified (viśistasya). Lord Visnu is the One Who has a "viśesa" (characteristic feature) viz., that the world of sentient and insentient entities (Cit and Acit) forms His body. The word body is again metaphorical. Whatever is supported, controlled and made use of invariably by a conscious being is the body in relation to that particular being.

1095. Sudarśanasūri seems to be the first one to use this term in his Śrutaprakāsikā on the Śrībhāṣya and in the Tātparyadīpikā on the Vedārthasaṅgraha. See Dr. V. Varadachari, "Antiquity of the term Viśiṣṭādvaita", Viśiṣṭādvaita Philosophy and Religion, Ramanuja Research Society, Madras, 1974 (p.iii).

The Rāmānuja Astottarasatanāma Stotra attributed to Vaduganambi (Āndhra Pūrna) uses the expression "visistādvaitapāragaḥ" (v.17). If he is same as the personal attendant of Śri Rāmānuja in charge of the "kṣīrakainkarya" to his master, then this Vaduganambi would be the earliest one to use the word.

1096. Śrībhāṣya, Vol.I (Andhra Press, Madras, 1909), p. 184 : "Viś iṣṭa-dravyaikyameva hi sāmānādhikaraṇyasyārthaḥ".

1097. See "Visiṣṭādvaitaśabdārthavicāra", an unpublished palm-leaf ms. in Grantha characters, deposited in the Adyar Library and Research Centre, Madras, under Acc. No. 69722.

According to the second dissolution of the Compound, there is oneness of the Lord who exists in two different stages or states: the causal state  $(k\bar{a}ran\bar{a}vasth\bar{a})$  and the effect-state  $(k\bar{a}ry\bar{a}vasth\bar{a})$ . In the causal state God has the subtle  $(s\bar{u}ksma)$  Cit and Acit as His body, whereas in the effect state the selfsame God has the gross  $(sth\bar{u}la)$  Cit and Acit as His body.

This school, which, from the viewpoint of Religion is called "Śrīvaisṇavism", received its emotional force from the inspired utterances of the Drāvida Saints, Āļvārs, who flourished in the Tamil country sometime between the 5th Cent. and the 7th Cent. A.D. As noted in the opening chapter Nāthamuni collected the songs of the Āļvārs, set them to music and introduced their singing in the temple liturgies under the Śrīvaisṇava governance. His grandson Yāmuna inherited the twin tradition of the Sanskrit and the Tamil Vedāntas as a composite religio-literary culture which is now popularly known as the *Ubhayavedānta* tradition. 1098

Although Yāmuna did not write any works in Tamil explaining or expounding the Divyaprabandha, still he left quite an impression on the commentarial tradition through his own "Nirvāhas" (interpretations) for a few verses (Pāśurams) of the Tiruvāymozhi of Nammāļvār which are recorded in the commentaries on the Divyaprabandha. 1099 In fact we have such Nirvāhas offered by Rāmānuja also for some songs of the illustrious Āļvārs, which are popular in tradition as "Emberumānār Nirvāhas". We shall now briefly allude to a few important Nirvāhas of Yāmuna (called "Āļvāndār Nirvāhas") before we sum up his contribution to Visiṣṭādvaita. In all probability, these Nirvāhas were given by Yāmuna during his discourses on the Tiruvāymozhi by way of clearing the doubts raised by his

<sup>1098.</sup> The term "Ubhayavedānta" might have gained currency from the times of Rāmānuja. His personal attendant and disciple, Vaduga Nambi (Āndhra Pūrna) uses the word "tadubhayanigamānta" in his Yatirājavaibhava, v. 108.

See also Dr. K.K.A. Venkatachari, "Śrī Rāmānuja and Ubhaya Vedānta", Studies in Rāmānuja, pp. 167-174.

<sup>1099.</sup> See *Aitihya Nirvāha Ratnamālai* (in Tamil) by P.B. Annangaracharya Swamin, Kanchi, 1953.

disciples. These interpretations are a source of great delight for, not only one gets an idea of the profundity of the emotional appeal of the stanza concerned, but also of the ingenuity of the interpreting genius.

I. Yāmuna was once explaining the Pāśuram, "Ennadāvi mēlaiyāy ērkoļ.." of the Tiruvāymozhi (IV.3.8), which when freely translated, means: "O effulgent and all-pervasive Lord! I cannot express your magnanimity in so many words. My self is dependent upon you and Your Self is dependent upon me (We are made for each other; and we cannot survive independent of each other)."

Some among his Gosthi asked Yāmuna: "There is justification in saying that the jīva's self is dependent upon the Lord. But how can the reverse be true?" Yāmuna offered his interpretation thus: "In fact, one has to doubt the statement of the jiva that his svarūpa is dependent upon the Lord inasmuch as the karmas performed by the jiva stand in his way as the stumbling block. There being no such thing that prevents the Lord to do as He wills, one need not doubt the truth of the statement that the Lord's svarūpa depends upon the jīva."1100

II. Yāmuna was once explaining the stanza "Kandukondu en kaigalāra" of the Tiruvāymozhi (IV.7.8) which means: "O Lord wearing beautiful Tulasi garlands! Why don't you come to this world of ours so that we can see you, worship your holy feet with flowers, sing and dance in ecstasy?" It seems Yāmuna, by way of comparison, quoted the words of the hero Mädhava to his beloved Mālati, from Bhavabhūti's Mālatīmādhava (V.27): "tvatpādapankaja-parigraha-dhanyajanmā bhūyāsam." ("Let me render my birth fortunate by resorting to your lotus-feet") and remarked: "No doubt the statement (of the hero Mādhava) is beautiful. But (unfortunately) we do not find it addressed to the One who really deserves it (God). 1101

III. Yāmuna was expounding the decad beginning with "Unnum soru parugu nir tinnum vetrilaiyum elläm Kannan.." of the Tiruvāymozhi (VI.7). The context is that the mother of the Nāyakī is firm that the girl has gone to Tirukkolūr all alone. asking the people about the road that leads to that place. We have a more of less similar situation described in the verse. "Kalvan kol..." of Tirumangaiyālvār's Periya Tirumozhi (III.7). The difference between these two, however, is that while in Nammālvār's song, the Nāvaki is going all alone in search of her beloved, in Tirumangaiyālvār's verse the Nāvaki and her beloved are both going out. The disciples of Yāmuna asked him as about whom one should be more concerned: for the lady who left all alone for Tirukkölür, or for the lady who is in the company of her beloved. They felt that the former deserves more concern. But Yāmuna replied: "The condition of Parakāla Nāyakī (i.e., Tirumangaiyālvār, the Bride) is more to be worried about because she is in the company of her beloved, and being mutually amorously involved, they may lose the path and ultimately may not reach their destination at all. In the case of Parānkuśa Nāyaki (i.e., Nammāļvār, the Bride), however, there being nothing to divert her attention, she whould certainly reach her destination. We need not be worried about her."1102

IV. Explaining the Pāsuram "Pēr eyil sūzh Kadal.." of Tiruvāymozhi (VII. 3.7) wherein the Nāyaki expresses her desire to go to the Divyadeśa called Ten Tiruppērai (Tinneveli District). Yāmuna had occasion to quote the Rāmāyana verse: "dīpo netrāturasyeva pratikūlāsi me drdham" (Yuddha, 118.17). Here Rāma repudiates Sitā with harsh words: "Certainly your presence before me is as irritating as the flame of a lamp is to one who has an eye-disease." Commenting on this simile, Yāmuna said: "The whole thing (repudiation of the spotless Sītā) is due to the defect in the eye (of Rāma), but not due to any defect in the flame of the lamp (Sitā's character). 1103

<sup>1100.</sup> See Aitihya Nirvāha Ratnamālai, p. 23:

<sup>&</sup>quot;Ivan tannai avanukkākkuvan enravanru; karmam tagaiyavum kūdum; ivan svarūpam avanitta vazhakkākkakkūdumō enru itilē kānum sandehikkavenduvadu."

<sup>1101.</sup> Ibid., p. 27:

<sup>&</sup>quot;Vārttai yazhagiyadu; vaguttavişayattilēyāgap petrilōm"

<sup>1102.</sup> See Aitihya Nirvāha Ratnamālai, p.41:

<sup>&</sup>quot;Iruvarāyp ponavarkaļāgaiyālē iruvarukkum anjavēņum; taniyē ponavalukkoru bhayamundo?"

<sup>1103.</sup> *Ibid.*, p.47:

<sup>&</sup>quot;Nētradoṣattāl vandadupōkki, dipadoṣattāl vandadanru."

Let us also, in this context, show just two instances of Yāmuna's esteem for the Āļvārs. The following verse of his *Stotraratna* is actually based on a verse from Kulasekhara Āļvār's *Perumāl Tirumozhi*:

"nirāsakasyāpi na tāvaduţsaḥe maheśa! hātum tava pāda-paṅkajam | ruṣā nirasto 'pi śiśuḥ stanandhayo na jātu mātuścaraṇau jihāsati || (v. 26)

Cf. "ari sinattāl inra tāy akarridinum marravaļdan aruļ ninainde azhum kuzhavi aduve pōl irundēnē." (V.1)

The following description of Ādisesa as serving the Lord in several capacities — as His abode, couch, seat, sandals, dress, pillow, umbrella etc., found in the *Stotraratna* is almost a translation of a stanza of Poygai Āļvār:

"nivāsa-śayyāsana-pādukāmśukopadhāna-varṣātapavāranādibhiḥ | śarīrabhedais tava śeṣatām gataiḥ yathocitam śeṣa itīryate janaiḥ || (v. 40)

Cf. "cenrāl kuḍaiyām, irundāl singādanamām ninrāl maravaḍiyām, nilkaḍaluļ enrum

punaiyām, manivilakkām, pūmpattām pulkum anaiyām, tirumārkkaravu." (*Tiruvandādi* I, song 53).

In the light of this it is clear that the religious fervour of the system which Yāmuna was propounding had its origin in the Tamil Veda while its philosophical soundness was founded in the Sanskrit Veda.

Before concluding this chapter we may note that Yāmuna was popular among the later rhetoricians also. The verses, "tavāmrtasyandini pādapankaje.." (v.27) and "abhūtapūrvam" (v. 25) of his *Stotraratna* are cited by Appaya Dīkṣita (17th cent. A.D.) as instances of the Figures of Speech called Prativastūpamā and Sambhava respectively.

Now let us bring to a finale this chapter, after briefly recapitulating the outstanding contribution of Yāmuna to the Philosophy of the Śrivaiṣṇavas. According to Rāmānuja, Yāmuna refuted three powerful rival schools, viz., Advaita of Śarkara and the Bhedābhedas of Bhāskara and Yādavaprakāśa. 1104

The chief tenet of the Viśiṣṭādvaita, (the "pradhāna-pratitantra-siddhānta") viz., that the Brahman is One and that He is qualified by the sentient and insentient entities which form His modes, 1105 from which this system derives its name, hinges upon the concept of "śarīra-śarĭri-bhāva" between the world and the Lord, which we have traced out from the works of Yāmuna. This concept finds fuller expression and consummation in Rāmānuja's works. Another chief feature of the system, viz., that the jīva possesses knowledge as his inseparable and inborn attribute, technically caled Dharmabhūtajñāna in later terminlogy, has its roots in Yāmuna's works. The concept of the self as identical with the entity called "Aham" (i.e., that it always possesses self-awareness), another cardinal tenet of this school, also goes back to Yāmuna. Rāmānuja's Theory of Error also appears to be derived from Yāmuna.

On the religious side, the value of Bhakti and Prapatti was stressed by Rāmānuja in accordance with the tradition handed over to him from Yāmuna. Scriptural sanction for idol-worship in temples, as established by Yāmuna in his Āgamaprāmānya helped Rāmānuja in his mission of reviving the concepts of Bhakti and Prapatti.

We may therefore conclude that Yāmuna was mainly responsible for providing a sound scholastic foundation for the system of thought later characterised as Visiṣṭādvaita, and that the task of building it up and promoting it as a regular School came into the masterly hands of Rāmānuja.

<sup>1104.</sup> Cf. the introductory verse of the *Vedārthasaingraha*:

"param brahmaiva ajñam bhramaparigatam samsarati tat
paropādhyālīḍham vivaśam aśubhasya āspadamiti
śruti-nyāyāpetam jagati vitatam mohanamidam
tamo yenāpāstam sa hi vijayate yāmunamuniḥ"

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## APPENDIX I

We furnish below passages of the *Nyāyatattva* of Nāthamuni, quoted or referred to by Vedānta Desika in some of his works. For a detailed account of these passages with English translation, see Prof. R. Ramanujachari, "Fragments from *Nyāyatattva*", *Prof. K.V. Rangaswami Ayyangar Commemmoration Volume*, pp. 555-578.

- 1. असिद्धानैकान्तिकविरुद्धा हेत्वाभासाः।
- 2. अज्ञातसन्दिग्धविपरीताः तिस्रोद्रसिद्धयः।
- 3. अप्रमाणमूलत्वं तूभयोरिप नास्ति, व्यभिचाराभावेनानिधगतार्थं प्रमाणिमिति विशेषणस्यायुक्तत्वात्। प्रमिते तु प्रमित्यनुपपित्तः क दृष्टा? स्मृतौ चेत्, प्रतिज्ञैव दृष्टा । ज्ञानान्तरे चेत् नानुजानामि ।
  - 4. चक्षुषा श्रवणं सर्पाणामेवेति नियम्यते।
- 5. अन्नस्य अतिस्कष्मपरिणामिनिद्रयम्.....कर्मेन्द्रियाणा-मप्यन्नपरिणामत्वात्।

<sup>1.</sup> Nyāyapariśuddhi : p. 130

<sup>2.</sup> *Ibid* : p. 132

<sup>3.</sup> Ibid: p. 172, as from the 4th 'Adhikarana'.

<sup>4.</sup>  $Ny\bar{a}yasiddh\bar{a}\bar{n}jana$ : p. 194, as from 'Karaṇapāda, 8th Adhikaraṇa'.

<sup>5.</sup> Ibid: as for 'Karanapāda, 7th Adhikarana'.

<sup>6.</sup> Ibid: pp. 194 and 199, as from 'Karanapāda, 8th Adhikarana'.

- 6. नखदन्तकेशादिषु स्पर्शानुपलम्भश्च प्राणमान्द्यतारतम्यात्।
- 7. हस्तेन गन्धोपलब्धिः गजानामेव।
- 8. सर्पाः पादात् कर्मेन्द्रियाद्दते वक्षसा गच्छ न्ति । तेषां गतिशक्तिरुरसि। तस्मादुरगास्ते, पन्नगाश्च ।
  - 9. यथा वा मान्धालादीनामास्येन विण्मूत्रविसर्गः।
  - 10. संयोगविभागसंख्या कालः।
  - 11. तस्मादेकाश्रयक्रिया संख्या कालः।
- 12. यथा सर्वे प्रत्ययाः कालोपश्चिष्टा एव हि दृश्यन्ते । तदिति देशकालविशिष्टतयैव स्मृतिरिप जायमाना प्रागिप कालानुभवं साधयित ।
- 13. ननु वायुर्भूरेणूनां संघातं करोति ..... उच्यते । कर्तृकरणकर्माणीति त्रीणि कारणानि क्रियाविशिष्टानि । तेषामन्यतमाभावे क्रिया न युज्येत ।
  - 14. अत्यन्तवेगितात्यन्तसौक्ष्म्यं निर्भरता तथा। स्वसत्ताकालभाव्याप्तिज्ञाने लक्ष्मचतुष्टयम्।
  - 15. अनुभवादुरत्वं स्मृतिनिमित्तम्।

- 16. अधःपतनस्वभावात्म गुरुत्वम्; तदभावी लघुत्वम् ।
- 17. त्रिविधं गुरुत्वम् ---- ऊर्ध्वतिर्यगधोभेदेन । वाय्विमजलानि तिर्यगृर्ध्वाधोगुरूणि।
  - 18. विरलसंयोगप्रयुक्तस्पर्शो मृदुः। निर्विरलसंयोगप्रयुक्तस्पर्शः कठिनः।
- 19. दुष्करवियोगस्वभावसंयोगस्पर्शत्वं पिच्छिलत्वम् सुकरवियोगस्वभावसंयोगस्पर्शत्वं विश्लिष्टत्वम् ।
  - 20. संयोगकालसामीप्यं हि वेगः।
  - 21. संयोगान्तर्भूता संख्या। समस्ततदात्मा संख्या।
- 22. संख्यान्तर्भूतं परिमाणम् .... दूरत्वं दैर्घ्यम्; सामीप्यं ह्रस्वत्वं, तिर्यग्दूरत्वं स्थौल्यम्, तिर्यक् सामीप्यं काश्यम्, स्वांशस्याग्रे स्वांशस्थितिरार्जवम् । स्वांशस्य स्वांशस्थितिर्वक्रता, एकदिक्स्थान्त्यावयवानां विरुद्धदिक्स्थान्त्या-वयवदूरत्वसामीप्यसाम्यं वृत्तत्वम्; केवलविरुद्धदिगन्तांशानां दूरत्वसामीप्यसाम्यं चतुरश्रत्वम् . ... ... अनेकव्याप्तिर्महत्ता । तदभावो मन्दत्वम् । समस्ततदभावतदात्मा परिमाणम् ।
  - 23. अतिरेकव्यतिरेकभेदेन द्विविधो भेदः।

<sup>7.</sup> Nyāyasiddhāñjana: p. 195, as from 'Karaṇapāda, 8th Adhikarana'.

<sup>8.</sup> Ibid. p. 196, as from 'Karanapāda, 8th Adhikarana'.

<sup>9.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>10.</sup> Ibid. p. 205, as from 'Samyogādhikaraņa'.

<sup>11.</sup> Ibid. as from 'Pramātṛpāda'.

<sup>12.</sup> Ibid. as from 'Pramātṛpāda',

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<sup>14.</sup> Ibid. p. 237, as from 'Prathmādhikaraņa'.

<sup>15.</sup> Nyāyasiddhāñjana: p. 238. Deśika here refers to the Ātmasiddhi, p. 208, where this passage is quoted by Yāmuna, as from the first 'Adhikaraṇa'.

<sup>16.</sup> Nyāyasiddhāñjana: p. 256.

<sup>17.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>18.</sup> Ibid. p. 257, 'Prameyapāda, 7th Adhikaraņa'.

<sup>19.</sup> Ibid. p. 258,

<sup>20.</sup> Ibid. 'Prameyapāda, 7th Adhikaraṇa'.

<sup>21.</sup> Ibid. p. 261, as from 'Prameyapāda, 7th Adhikaraņa'.

<sup>22.</sup> Ibid. p. 262, as from 'Prameyapāda, 7th Adhikaraņa'.

<sup>23.</sup> Ibid. p. 263, as from 'Prameyapāda, 7th Adhikaraņa'.

- 24. ऐक्यं साकल्येन संयोगः। तदभावो भेदः।
- वियोगो न वक्तव्य: ।
- 26. अत्यन्तसामीप्यं संयोगः । दूरत्वं वियोगः ।
- 27. यदि गमनपचनादीनां क्षणिकत्वं ज्ञायेत, न हि ते क्षणिकाः, संयोगवियोगविशेषत्वात्तेषाम्।
  - 28. गमनं नाम देशात् देशान्तरप्राप्तिः।
- 29. वयं तु क्रियायाः प्रत्यक्षत्वं ब्रूमः । .... तस्मात् देशात् देशान्तरप्राप्तिः लिङ्गमिति न मन्यामहे । अपि तु तदेव तदिति मन्यामहे, कल्पनालाघवात् ।
  - 30. परस्य स्वोपदेशन्यायेन निश्चितार्थो व्यवहारो वादः।
- 31. स्वपक्षप्रामाण्यप्रतिपक्षाप्रमाण्यनिश्चयार्थो व्यवहारो जल्पः । प्रतिपक्षाप्रामाण्यमात्रनिश्चयार्थो व्यवहारो वितण्डा।
  - 32. षष्ठी चेयं ख्यातिः यथार्थख्यातिः।

The following passages may also be compared:

- 33. यत्तु करणपादपञ्चमाधिकरणे नेत्रश्रोत्रादिशक्तीना-मालोकशब्दाद्यात्मकत्वमुक्तं, यच्च तथैव ... इन्द्रियाणां भौतिकत्वं प्रतिपादितम् ।
- 34. दूरस्थग्रहणे तु चाक्षुषमहःप्रसरणात् सम्बन्धसिद्धिः । तच्च करणपादद्वितीयाधिकरणे प्रपञ्चितम् । प्रतिबिम्बग्रहणे तु स्वच्छद्रव्यप्रतिहतस्य नयनमहसः प्रतिस्रोतःप्रसरादिमूलकत्वं भ्रान्त्यधिकरणपूर्वपक्षेऽ भिहितम्।
- 35. नखदन्तरोमिकणादीनामिप मन्दप्राणाश्रयत्वं न्यायतत्त्वे करणपादाष्टमाधिकरणे प्रपञ्चितम् ।
  - 36. उक्तं हि (बुद्धेः) निरतिशयसूक्ष्मत्वं न्यायतत्त्वे।
  - वन्नाथमुनिमिश्राद्यैः यथार्थख्यातिसाधनम् ।
     तल्लोकबुद्ध्यनारोहात् वैभवं केचिद्चिरे ।।
- 38. तत्र धर्मभूतज्ञानस्य द्रव्यत्वं न्यायतत्त्वात्मसिद्धिभाष्यादिसिद्धमनुसरतां तिन्नष्ठ स्मृत्याख्यविकारोत्पादकः संस्कारोऽपि तिन्नष्ठः प्राप्तः, अन्तरङ्गत्वात्, अबाधाच्य।

<sup>24.</sup> Ibid. as from 'Prameyapāda, 7th Adhikarana'.

<sup>25.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>26.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>27.</sup> Ibid. p. 264 1st Adhikarana

<sup>28.</sup> Ibid. as from the 2nd Adhikarana'.

<sup>29.</sup> Ibid. as from the 'Prameyapāda'.

<sup>30.</sup> Nyāyapariśuddhi, p. 109.

<sup>31.</sup> Ibid. p. 110

<sup>32.</sup> Tattvamuktākalāpa, 'Buddhisara', C. on śl. 13.

<sup>33.</sup> Nyāyasiddhānjana, p. 194.

<sup>34.</sup> Ibid. p. 195.

<sup>35.</sup> Ibid. p. 199.

<sup>36.</sup> Ibid. p. 241.

<sup>37.</sup> Nyāyapariśuddhi, p. 92.

<sup>38.</sup> Ibid. p. 181.

- 39. संयोगत् विश्वसृष्टि: प्रकृतिषुरुषयोस्तादृशै: तद्विशेषै: ब्रह्मादिस्तम्बनिष्ठा जगति विषमता यन्त्रभेदादयश्च । आक्षाणामर्थयोगात् विविधमतिरबाद्यन्वयात् अङ्करादिः शुद्धाशुद्धादियोगात् नियतमपि फलं न्यायतत्त्वेऽ स्य घोषः ॥
- 40. द्रव्यं प्राग्बुद्धिरुक्ता परिमह विषयैः सङ्गमादिर्निरूप्यः संयोगं भाष्यकाराः प्रथममकथयन् न्यायतत्त्वानुसारात् ॥
- 41. नाथैरुक्ता यथार्था विमतमतिरपि न्यायतत्त्वे।
- 42. उक्तं खलु नाथमुनिभिः वेदान्तानुकूलं न्यायशास्त्रं न्यायतत्त्वाभिधानेन । तच्च परिगृहीतं यामुनाचार्यादिभिः ।

# APPENDIX II NĀMA-MAUKTIKA-MĀLĀ

नाम मौक्तिक माला

यत्पदाम्भोरुहध्यानविध्वस्ताशेषकल्मषः। वस्तुतामुपयातोऽ हं यामुनेयं नमामि तम्।।	8
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ऋषिशुक्तिसमुद्भूतैर्निर्दोषैः श्रुतिसागरे।।	२
आराधनाय हरये जगदानन्ददायिने ।	
श्रीनाथनायकपतिनारायणगुणान्विता।।	3
•	
सर्वकल्याणजननी जगन्मङ्गलवैभवा।	
मनीषिभिर्महाभागैः वैष्णवैः ध्रियतामियम् ॥	્ષ્ઠ
श्रीमन्नारायणाद्वीश श्रीमन्नञ्जनशैलप ।	
श्रीमद्वृषभशैलेन्द्र श्रीमि्सिंहनगाधिप।।	ધ
	•
श्रीशेषगोत्राभरण श्रीनिवासेति कीर्तये ।	
अच्युतानन्तगोविन्द मुकुन्द गरुडध्वज।।	Ę
जगदानन्दजनक जगज्जन्मादिकारण।	
नारायण जगन्नाथ शरणागतवत्सल ॥	6
	•
सत्यसङ्कल्प सर्वज्ञ सत्यकाम सनातन।	
निस्सीमाभ्यधिक स्त्रस्थ स्वे महिम्नि प्रतिष्ठित॥	۷
<del></del>	
त्रिविक्रम त्रिलोकेश शङ्खचक्रगदाधर।	0
रमानाथ रसानाथ नीळानाथ निरञ्जन ।।	9

<sup>39.</sup> Tattvamuktākalāpa, 'Adravyasara', śl. 55.

<sup>40.</sup> Ibid. śl. 59.

<sup>41.</sup> Ibid. 'Buddhisara' śl. 10.

<sup>42.</sup> Ibid. C. on sl. 56.

नित्यनिर्दोषनिस्सीममहाविभव शाश्वत।	
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लोकाधार पराधार आत्माधार धराधर ॥	?७
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